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Project Beacon's training programs were for the preparation of pre-service and in-service personnel to work in socially disadvantaged community schools. Those involved were teachers of regular and special classes, administrators and supervisors, guidance specialists, therapeutic educators, school psychologists, and eudcational psychologists.

The characteristics and needs of learners in socially and culturally disadvantaged communities were presented. Included were styles and modes of perceptual habituation, utilization of abstract symbols, and degree and direction of motivation.

Also discussed was the problem of conventional teacher training programs as to their adequacy to prepare educational personnel to work with disadvantaged children.

Implications of characteristics and needs of learners in socially and culturally disadvantaged communities involved the areas of home, school, and community analysis, child appraisal, and psycho-educational processes.

Included were two illustrative outlines on the history of educational thought and educational psychology in addition to outlines of training programs in the departments of curriculum and instruction, special education, educational psychology, and guidance.

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and in-service personnel
to work in socially disadvantaged-
community schools

as teachers of regular and special
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JANUARY 1963

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Training Programs in

# PROJECT BEACON

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the preparation of pre-service and in-service personnel

to

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as

teachers of regular and special classes, administrators and supervisors, guidance specialists, therapeutic educators, school psychologists and educational psychologists.

Graduate School of Education, Yeshiva University
110 West 57th Street, New York, 19, N.Y.

January, 1963.

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## I

## PREFACE

This report appears approximately a year after faculty members from several departments of the Graduate School of Education first began to meet regularly for the purpose of planning PROJECT BEACON. During this year, and as a result of these discussions, the PROJECT has assumed greater clarity and certain of its components have already been implemented on a small scale. Thus, although this report is our first attempt to formulate our thoughts and plans in writing so that others might comment on them, it is actually somewhat more than that. It represents the current directions of PROJECT BEACON training programs after a number of false starts were abandoned, either as a result of intramural discussion or as a result of brief experience. This report appears at this time because we feel that for the time being we have benefitted almost as much as we can from an exposure to each others views and that the time has therefore come to more actively seek out the views of others as correctives and as stimulants.

At the same time that this report is being discussed with other faculty members of the Graduate School of Education than those who have thus far been involved in BEACON efforts, with faculty members of other colleges and universities where somewhat similar efforts are underway on a larger or smaller scale, and with representatives of agencies that are actively involved in improving life in urban gray areas. PROJECT BEACON itself will continue to develop in many ways. The reader must remember that this is only a report of the training programs in PROJECT BEACON. All in all, BEACON is conceived of as consisting of training programs, demonstration programs and research programs. The appearance of this report will enable the BEACON planning group to now turn greater attention to the two components which, thus far, have received relatively little sustained attention. We are particularly eager to turn to these other components since a Graduate School cannot long live up to its immediate responsibilities in conjunction with even the best of training programs unless it simultaneously prepares to revise these programs on the basis of evaluation and research.

By the beginning of the 1963-4 academic year all of the training programs outlined in this report will be in operation, at least on a small scale. Because BEACON programs are considered to be more difficult and demanding than standard training programs for the preparation of educational personnel only a small number of carefully selected students are expected to qualify to study in these programs. These students will be exposed to course work, field experiences, seminars, internship, and research training which will involve the faculty of the Graduate School of Education, faculty members from other graduate units of Yeshiva University (Albert Einstein College of Medicine and Wurtzweiler School of Social Work) staff members of the Board of Education and community agencies in New York City and experienced educators who have long worked in schools serving socially and culturally disadvantaged communities. It is our belief that we are bringing to the BEACON training programs the kinds of diversified talents and varied experiences that are most likely to produce dedicated and skilled educational leaders. However, we ultimately hope that PROJECT BEACON will accomplish more than prepare a few specialists for difficult schools - regardless of how well prepared these may be and how much good they may do.

Our hope is that PROJECT BEACON will also improve our understanding of how educational personnel should be trained. The training of teachers and other educational specialists is currently based more on hunches than on conceptually integrated theory, more on conviction than on research, more on conventional wisdom than on a detailed analysis of how and why children learn or do not learn, change or do not change. It is our hope that PROJECT BEACON will be able to collect, systematize, analyze and publicize information that will enable us and others to leave behind this relatively primitive stage of personnel training. Our hopes are based in part on the greater severity of the learning and behavior problems with which BEACON trainees must cope. The more exaggerated the characteristics of children,parents, schools and communities the easier it is to notice them, to provide for them, and to integrate them in the training of teachers and others. On the other hand, some of our hopefulness that PROJECT BEACON will help bring about a better understanding of teacher training is based upon the major involvement in BEACON of special education, guidance, educational psychology, therapeutic education and school psychology. To some extent each of these disciplines is more oriented toward analysis of behavior and toward guided behavioral change than has usually been the case with teacher training programs. We hope that through PROJECT BEACON their more advanced analytical and conceptual status will be deepened and will influence training in other educational specialties as well.

In conclusion, this is a report to our professional colleagues and peers. It is not primarily a publicity seeking or fund raising document, although PROJECT BEACON is in need of both publicity and funds. We hope that it will clarify to others what we are after, how we are already proceeding, and what we plan to do in the near future. We hope that it will enable them to criticize us, to share their experiences with us, and to help us more fully realize the goals of PROJECT BEACON. If this report also is of help to them in their own efforts along similar lines we will be pleased indeed. Finally, this report will frequently serve as a point of departure for the PROJECT BEACON faculty seminars which the Graduate School of Education will conduct every semester with the assistance of outstanding educators and scholars. On the basis of these seminars and on the basis of many comments, criticisms, and discussions a more final report on PROJECT BEACON training programs may be expected in the not too distant future.

* * *

It is a particular privilege to acknowledge the contributions of several Graduate School of Education faculty members to this report and to PROJECT BEACON in general:

Professor Harold Tannenbaum (Chairman, Department of Curriculum and Instruction) and Dr. Abraham Bernstein (Director, Teaching Fellowship Program) for their initial stimulation in formulating PROJECT BEACON and in attracting others to it.

Professor Abraham Tannenbaum (Associate Dean) and Professor Herbert Goldstein (Chairman, Department of Special Education) for their constant questioning and constant search for better approaches than those initially suggested.

Professor Edmund W. Gordon (Chairman, Department of Educational Psychology and Guidance) for becoming the major theoretical and practical shepherd of PROJECT BEACON and the one person to whom this report is indebted more than to any other.

Joshua A. Fishman, Ph.D.
Dean
Graduate School of Education
Yeshiva University

January, 1963

## II

## CHARACTERISTICS AND NEEDS OF LEARNERS IN SOCIALLY AND CULTURALLY DISADVANTAGED COMMUNITIES

### A. Introduction

A problem of increasing proportion in educational and social planning is that of providing educational opportunities appropriate to the characteristics and needs of large numbers of children who live in communities where:

- income level and social status are low;
- general intellectual stimulation is inappropriate to a high level of academic achievement;
- and patterns of social organization, cultural characteristics and cultural values differ markedly from those which are dominant in our society.

Through PROJECT BEACON The Graduate School of Education at Yeshiva University seeks to prepare

(1) teachers of regular classes,
(2) teachers of special classes,
(3) specialists in pupil personnel service and
(4) school administrators

for meaningful discharge of the school's responsibilities in the education of children who are handicapped by socio-economic pathology and cultural - experiential atypicality.

Children attending schools in many disadvantaged communities have been found to show atypicalities in development, in attitudes and in achievement. Numerous studies have shown that these children show a high incidence of academic retardation, underachievement and premature termination of school attendance (Clarke, Deutsch, Davis, Gordon, Kleinberg, Riessman, Witmer). Children living under varying conditions of deprivation and social atypicality are also reported to show disproportionately high rates of social maladjustment, behavioral disturbance, physical handicaps and mental subnormality (Pasamanick and Knobloch, Hollingshead and Redlich, Kardiner and Ovesey, Wortis). These malfunctions and disorders, which tend to debilitate the individual, preclude normal functioning, distort social and intellectual adaptation, and limit behavior, represent points on a continuum of reproductive and developmental error. At one end of this continuum we find fatalities or severe physical, mental, emotional or social incapacitation and, at the other end, the many possible atypicalities of development which may simply threaten normal functions or may even be stimulating of exceptional achievement. In the intellectual sphere alone this continuum includes severe mental deficiency, moderate or mild mental defects, functional or transient retardation of intellectual development, dull normal intellectual functioning, erratic or uneven intellectual development, average intelligence and as some investigators suggest, superior intellectual function based upon errors or accidents of reproduction and development. The disadvantaged must not only cope with this wide gamut of intellectual functioning but must also cope with a similarly challenging social and cultural context which renders school progress infinitely more difficult than it is in schools serving average middle class communities. The disadvantaged community and its schools therefore present more than ample variance and challenge for the highest level of professional planning, service and research on the part of behavioral scientists and their practitioner colleagues. PROJECT BEACON claims - in addition - that these communities and schools not only require and deserve assistance, but that they will provide much needed intellectual and professional stimulation to the specialists whom PROJECT BEACON seeks to train.

For those children from disadvantaged family and community backgrounds who nevertheless function within or above the range of normalcy and who show "satisfactory" response to standard educational opportunities, PROJECT BEACON raises the question as to possible increments in achievements if more appropriately tailored educational opportunities were provided. For those children whose adjustment and functioning fall short of expectations of normalcy PROJECT BEACON asks "Can not the nature of the variations in functioning be identified and learning experiences designed which are appropriate to the maximal development of individual students at various points along the continuum of defect?" It is the prime purpose of PROJECT BEACON training programs to prepare school personnel who can design and implement such experiences.

It has been traditional in mass-education to evaluate the teaching - learning process in terms of results obtained with the majority of learners. If most pupils learn something and some even learn a lot, the process has been thought to be good. But if some pupils learn very little or nothing at all, when instructed by the same process, we have tended to declare the learner inadequate without examining the appropriateness of the process to various categories of learners. In an age when affluent societies could afford to leave large numbers of their members relatively under-developed, this approach to the teaching - learning process was tolerable. However, the events and processes that have culminated in the technological, economic, political and social developments of the latter half of the 20th century have raised to the level of urgency world-wide concern with the growth of under-developed peoples and with the better utilization of human resources even in the most advanced societies. Certainly, the contemporary demands of America's world position require that education examine the appropriateness of its processes not only for those who manage to succeed, but, even more so, also for those who currently fail.

Since the beginning of this century, a few educators have concerned themselves with atypical children. Their initial efforts were directed toward the physically and sensorially handicapped and, more recently toward the mentally atypical. However even in these efforts, which have come to be called "special education", traditional methods place the burden on the learner with most special curriculums consisting merely of lower demand learning experiences for the handicapped. None-the-less, there has developed in this field of special education a model which should prove to be appropriate to the education of all children whose development is atypical. Teachers of children with sensory defects and/or neurological impairment have given special attention to the nature of the specific deficiencies in the functioning of their pupils. In the case of sensory handicaps these deficiencies are often in such grossly obvious areas as vision and hearing. In the case of neurological impairment, the evidence of deficiencies may be more subtle, e.g. astrephosymbolia, perceptual distortion or disturbed patterns of intersensory exchange may be present. Teachers of "brain-injured" children have become concerned with methods and materials designed to correct or compensate for deficiencies in perceptual skill, language skill, conceptualization and reasoning, and quantitative conceptualization (Gallagher). Detailed attention is also given to the conditions (physical and psychological) under which instruction proceeds (Strauss, Cruickshank). These developments in special education suggest that retardation in achievement may be as much the result of teaching methods and learning experiences which are inappropriate to the learner as they are of deficiency in the learners per se. In PROJECT BEACON, we act on this possible implication by shifting the burden of proof from the learner to the teacher and allied educational specialists.

J. McV. Hunt has said, "The problem for the management of child development (education) is to find out how to govern the encounters that children have with their environments (so as) to foster both an optimally rapid rate of intellectual development and a satisfying life" (Hunt, Experience and Learning). This deceptively simple statement has pertinence for all educational endeavor, but is particularly germane in meeting the educational problems for which PROJECT BEACON is designed. If learning experiences are to be designed to complement the specific environmental encounters required for the maximal development of the child, infinitely greater attention must be paid to the specific characteristics and needs of the learner. If this formula is to be applied to the education of children handicapped by socio-economic pathology and cultural-experiential atypicality, in the context of postulates that emphasize correction or compensation for specific disabilities in learning or learning readiness, two critical tasks emerge:

The first is that of qualitative appraisal of the learner and the learner's experience.

The second critical task is that of designing the pattern and sequence of complementary, corrective and compensatory encounters with the environment which are dictated by the specific learner -characteristics that have been identified.

PROJECT BEACON seeks to prepare school personnel for qualitative individual and group pupil appraisal and for specialized curriculum design and implementation. In each of our areas of school personnel preparation, we ask the question "What are the specific characteristics and needs of learners for whom we are preparing educators"; and "What qualities and competencies do such characteristics and needs require of school personnel"? We have only partial answers to these questions now; we have devised training programs based on these partial answers; we plan to carefully evaluate these programs so that they can be improved as experience dictates and as more complete answers become available.

## B. Characteristics and Needs of Learners in Socially and Culturally Disadvantaged Communities

The fact of cognitive and non-cognitive differences between children who grow up in communities marked by socio-economic pathology and cultural-experiential atypicality and children who attend school in more traditional, stable and economically secure communities is well known. However, before one can seek to overcome these differences - or even to minimize them - one must first adopt a position as to the fundamental cause of these differences. Some investigators have attempted to explain these phenomena on the basis of intrinsic social class differences (Gates, Putnam). There have also been some attempts to attribute these differences to proported racial or ethnic differences in intellectual capacity (George). Those holding either of these views have used the data from intelligence and achievement tests on such children and their parents to support the position that the higher incidence of school adjustment and achievement problems among the socially and culturally disadvantaged is the result of inherent group-wide inferiority on their part.

Other investigators concerned with this phenomenon have been struck by the observation that despite generally comparable initial levels of intelligence in preschool children chosen from variable ethnic, social and economic strata (Pasamanick , Scott, Jenkins), the academic achievement of children coming from underpriviliged communities falls progressively further below the norm as school attendance in these communities continues (Klineberg, Clarke, Deutsch, Gordon, Polier, Sexton). This observation has led to the conclusion that achievement differences between the two groups have little to do with inherent differences in intellectual capacity per se but are greatly influenced by the experiences (or lack of same) peculiar to each group. A basic postulate upon which PROJECT BEACON is based holds that conditions of social pathology, economic insufficiency and cultural-experiential norm variance have made for significant handicaps in the academic functioning of many children who come from disadvantaged communities. These handicaps are predominantly reflected in deficiencies in readiness, motivation, efficiency and achievement in academic learning situations. A second postulate which guides our work holds that these learning disabilities can be identified and analyzed and that procedures for their correction can be developed and implemented within the context of regular public school programs.

The few systematic attempts that have been made to analyze the characteristics of academic functioning in underprivileged children enable us to identify several conditions which must be taken into account in planning and designing procedures for the more effective education of these children. In considering such conditions (some of which have been much more fully documented than others) it must be recalled that none of these are found in all such children and that all of these may be absent in some such children. What we do have is a group of characteristics or conditions which are encountered in this population with sufficient frequency to deserve careful attention by educators.

1. These children have been found to show weaknesses in the utilization of abstract-symbols to represent and interpret phenomena. These weaknesses are reflected at all academic levels in vocabulary and language usage, reading comprehension, speed and word attack skills, and in formal quantification and computation.

2. Concept formation in these children tends to be content centered rather than form centered, i.e. concrete as opposed to abstract, with far greater emphasis given to inductive as opposed to deductive reasoning. Even within the realm of inductive reasoning these children seem to be limited in their readiness to make accurate generalizations from the specific to the universal and to transfer knowledge utilizing previously learned concepts.

3. Their styles and modes of perceptual habituation tend not to reflect those emphases which are important to academic efficiency. Although high levels of perceptual sensitization and discrimination are often present, these skills tend to be better developed in physical than in visual and in visual than in aural behavior. Probably of greater significance is the absence of any high degree of dependence on verbal or written communication for cognitive cues. Many of these children have simply not become attuned to the perceptual modes traditional to academics.

4. Many of these children show a marked lack of readiness for involvement with, attention to and concentration

on the content of their *academic experiences*. There are few academic tasks which commit them to deep involvement. Work habits are frequently insufficiently developed. The high-interest demands of extra-academic experiences and the relatively low-interest demands of academic experiences leave them limited in their ability to inhibit responses to stimuli which are extraneous to academic learning and to disinhibit responses to stimuli which are pertinent to academic learning.

5. The *degree and direction of motivation* in these children are frequently inconsistent with the demands and goals of formal education. Although quality of aspiration is often depressed it is usually consistent with perceptions of the availability of opportunity and reward. On the other hand, symbolic rewards and postponements of gratification appear to be inoperative as positive norms in motivation. Goals for these children tend to be more self centered, immediate and utilitarian. Although the values from which motivation is derived reflect dominant-culture concerns with status, material possessions, in-group morality, Judeo-Christian Ethics, competition, etc., there is usually lacking a concern with esthetics of knowledge, symbolization as an art form, introspection, and competition with self. Drive is present but its direction and goals may not be complementary to academic achievement.

6. *Attitudinal preparation*, being closely related to motivational factors, is not infrequently a problem in planning education for these children. We have referred to utilitarian attitudes toward knowledge and have made in-

ferential reference to negativistic attitudes toward the pursuit of knowledge. However, it is in the area of attitude toward self and others that our evidence is least clear. It has been observed by some that these children show affinity for in-group members and reflect distance or even hostility toward representatives of out-groups. This has been observed in peer as well as in non-peer relationships. Other observers have noted the high degree of respect and awe held for selected out-group status persons or idealized models. Depressed self-concept has been noted as have tendencies toward self deprecation. On the other hand some recent findings suggest that depressed self concept is not a prevalent condition and where present may have little bearing on academic achievement. Probably both extremes are operative and may constitute a source of internal and external conflict.

In addition to these more generic functional characteristics, these children face very specific socio-cultural patterns in relation to (a) nutrition and health status, (b) geographic mobility, (c) family instability, (d) over crowding and inadequacy in housing, (e) absentee parents, (f) economic insufficiency, (g) second and third class citizenship and (h) the excessive and extraneous stimulation flowing from the experiential richness and abusiveness of communities marked by rapid social change or disorganization.

In our zeal to identify those characteristics which impede academic achievement in socially disadvantaged children, it is important that we not overlook positive characteristics which may be utilized in the educative porcess. Experience with youth gangs and delinquency as well as the literature on these topics provide ample evidence of the fact that selective motivation, creativity and proficiency are present in many of these children. From the same sources we find examples of complex symbolism utilized in special recall, association and generalization, and accurate perception of social, psychological and physical data. These children, as others, are capable of positive and negative identifications and are frequently found to be hungering for meaningful relationships with significant adults. They can be loyal friends or troublesome adversaries. In many instances the fact of disadvantaged status and deficient experience have planted seeds of dissatisfaction with and rebellion against their lot which can be utilized as positive motivating forces. Insufficient attention has been given to the fact that many children who come from disadvantaged families and communities go on to rise above their origins and meet mainstream standards for academic and social achievement.

Children with the characteristics discussed above need many things. Some of their needs can be met within the framework of an excellent school program. Others of these needs nust be met within the framework of the community in which they live. It has been noted that "The democratic problem in education is not primarily a problem of training children; it is a problem of making a community in which children cannot help growing up to be democratic, intelligent, disciplined to freedom, reverent to the goods of life - eager to share in the tasks of the age. A school cannot produce this result; nothing but a community can do so." The first pressing and immediate need of these children is for the modification of the environment - the society in which they live - so that the negatives in their individual characters may be corrected or produced in lesser abundance, and so that the neutrals and positives in their characters may be better utilized in their development.

On review of the identified characteristics of these children it is readily noted that many are referable to several of the developmental tasks peculiar to readiness for successful school experience. Following the position set forth by Havighurst it would seem that in the absence of experiences leading to the mastery of prior developmental task areas, readiness for subsequent tasks is precluded or retarded. We do not know whether disturbance of the temporal and sequential relationships in the mastery of developmental tasks creates deficiencies which are totally repairable, partially repairable or irreversible. We do know, however, that maximum adjustment or achievement in areas dependent upon the mastery of these tasks is not possible without compensation for or correction of the noted deficiencies. It follows logically then that an attack upon the educational problems of children with these deficiencies should be directed toward the mastery of those developmental tasks upon which success in school is based. The school oriented needs of Beacon children point clearly toward:

1. detailed qualitative appraisal of potential for learning, achievement in learning and the strengths and weaknesses in the individual child's mechanics of learning;
2. remedial instruction and special training in those skills, competences and processes which are essential to academic progress but which may not have been mastered in the prior formal and incidental learning experiences of the child;
3. special experiences and support designed to make better use of existing skills, competences, attitudes and values in the upgrading of academic and social productivity and the achievement of a satisfying life.
4. special experiences and support designed to enhance development of those attitudes and values upon which academic achievement is built; and
5. special help in offsetting the negative impact on school adjustment of concrete problems of daily living in communities and under conditions which are abusive to the minds, bodies, and spirits of children and adults alike.

What is indicated here is an approach to educational management which utilizes the best of traditional and progressive pedagogy. Riessman has called for a marriage between the two to meet the needs of disadvantaged children. We need the structure, rules, discipline, authority, order, organization, and strong external demands for achievement from the traditionalists and we also need the progressivist's emphasis on motivation, learning by doing, examples drawn from the experience of the child -- beginning in the immediate and moving toward the broad, the abstract, the cultural heritage.

Under PROJECT BEACON school psychologists and guidance workers will be trained to assume primary responsibility for meeting the needs reflected in item #1. Regular and Special classroom teachers will be trained to carry principal responsibility for implementing items #2 and #3 with some assistance from the guidance staff. Items #4 and #5 are areas of need for which the guidance workers and therapeutic educators will be trained to carry the major load. Research and evaluation of programs in all of these areas will be conducted by Beacon trained specialists in educational psychology. In all instances education must be recognized as a team operation to which several specialists must make their unique contributions if the educational process is to advance.

# III

## ARE CONVENTIONAL TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAMS ADEQUATE FOR THE PREPARATION OF EDUCATIONAL PERSONNEL TO WORK WITH DISADVANTAGED CHILDREN?

Teacher training requirements have become fairly standard, if not uniform, in recent years. In order to qualify for a teaching certificate, the trainee is expected to take courses in foundations of education, psychology, teaching methods, and practice teaching, along with some prescribed academic content. One conspicuous fact about these programs and the pattern they follow is that nobody has really evaluated them. True, they seem sensible, on paper at least, but we have no critical evidence to substantiate their efficiency in forging the kinds of products they are intended to forge. We don't _know_ that they represent the best of all possible ways to prepare teachers for classroom work, nor do we _know_ that they are better than other equally sensible approaches. We merely _think_ they can accomplish the most with the given raw material.

But even assuming that the blueprint for teacher education currently in vogue reflects _ne plus ultra_ in design, the question still remains: For which schools? Can any one type of program, however impressive it may seem, train teachers equally well for service in silk stocking and slum schools? Or are the demands posed by one pupil population so different from that of the other, that the pre-service education of teachers must necessarily be differentiated accordingly? Judging from present requirements in teacher education programs, no tailor-made training is generally available. A single set of professional courses is prescribed for all certificate candidates regardless of where they plan or are forced to teach eventually. Perhaps this is as it should be. Perhaps the qualities and skills necessary for effective instruction are of a single kind, and a good teacher somewhere is bound to be a good teacher everywhere. In the absence of definitive research evidence one cannot really be sure. Yet, it is hard to accept on faith alone the notion that work with slum neighborhood children requires no special preparation -- that it is sufficient to master just the basic teaching know-how imparted in the usual courses of study. Socially and culturally disadvantaged pupils are obviously more puzzling to teachers than are youngsters growing up in homes and neighborhoods resembling more nearly the average teacher's own environment. Conventional methods and materials of instruction do not usually succeed with these children. Other devices must be applied and evaluated, or else failure and heartache are virtually certain and many individuals who might otherwise have remained in these difficult teaching posts either ask to be reassigned or leave the profession entirely.

In New York City an attempt was made to test the transferability of effective teaching from a middle class to a slum neighborhood. A number of school officials in "favored" districts were asked to nominate their best teachers for service with disadvantaged children. The nominees were then assembled and invited to become the nucleus of a staff in a single slum area school in the hope of improving education there. Unfortunately, the project failed. The hand-picked teachers, who had performed so masterfully in middle-class schools, soon became demoralized and asked to be returned to the classrooms from which they had come. Teaching had become converted from a joy to a terror, and they wanted to be released almost immediately. Their former success could not be transplanted to unfamiliar soil.

One possible reason for the failure of this project is that the teachers were ill-prepared to face the unique problems of educating disadvantaged children. The colleges from which they had graduated provide no special orientation to the backgrounds and needs of these pupils. Required courses are of a general sort and make little, if any, reference to problems of the kind encountered.

Teacher training institutions usually pattern their programs according to the certification requirements established by the State Education Department. In this way, students can qualify simultaneously for an academic degree and for a teaching certificate. Let us examine some of these requirements and the courses offered to satisfy them by colleges preparing teachers for service in New York City. The following chart illustrates a sample program, listing the areas to be covered as prescribed by the State Education Department and some sample course titles taken from current college catalogues:

## PROGRAM LEADING TO AN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHER'S LICENSE

| State Education Department Requirements for the Teaching Certificate | Typical Course Titles That Satisfy State Requirements |
|---|---|
| Foundations of Education | "History of Education"<br>"Philosophy of Education"<br>"Comparative Education"<br>"Educational Classics"<br>"Critique of Educational Literature"<br>"Foundations of Education"<br>"School and Community" |
| Psychology For Teachers | "Educational Psychology"<br>"Child Psychology"<br>"Human Development and the Educative Process" |
| Pedagogy | "Methods and Materials for Teaching Reading"<br>"Methods and Materials for Teaching Science"<br>"Methods and Materials for Teaching Social Studies"<br>"Methods and Materials for Teaching Arithmetic"<br>"Methods and Materials for Teaching Art"<br>"Methods and Materials for Teaching Music" |
| Observation and Practice Teaching | "Student Teaching"<br>"Observation and Practice Teaching" |

Note that both the requirements and courses omit reference to the special problems of teaching children from lower socio-economic backgrounds. This omission is also evident in preparatory programs for school administrators and supervisors, guidance counselors, school psychologists, teachers on the high school level, teachers of the mentally retarded, and teachers of the emotionally disturbed. State Education Department officials have been reluctant to depart from these blueprints, or to accept alternatives to them, on the grounds that a license is a general entree to schools and designed not to be restrictive to any one kind. They feel that a certificate should entitle the recipient to teach in any area of the state, be it urban, suburban, rural non-farm, or rural-farm.

Such an attitude fails to take into account the growth of urban centers and the complexities inherent in educating ever-larger numbers of children and youth in high delinquency city districts. Nor does it pay heed to the multitude of educational problems in areas where many minority groups mingle and inter-group tensions are of major concern to the community.

In the absence of differentiated requirements by State and even City certifying agencies, teacher training institutions in New York City provide little opportunity for teachers-in-training to dig deeply into the problems that many of them will face if they are placed in slum-area schools. Not a single comprehensive special program is offered to fill these needs. Alarmingly few courses address themselves to the education of the culturally disadvantaged. It is true that at least two of the many colleges in the city(other than the Graduate School of Education) are valiantly attempting to provide more intensively guided field work and student teaching in poor, run-down neighborhoods. But these are only modest efforts that involve very little programmatic innovation. And yet, the vast majority of students prepared in the metropolitan colleges for teaching careers in New York City are pressed into service precisely in disadvantaged neighborhoods.

An inflexible preparatory program that offers little exposure to the realities of life in "difficult" schools can lead to disillusionment early in the teacher's career. Beginners who had planned long term service in the classroom, and had prepared for it over long years of schooling, are frequently shocked by the unfamiliar, threatening work situation they face. The result is that many would-be competent teachers resign at the outset and are lost to the profession forever. Little wonder, then, that the rate of staff turnover is shockingly high in depressed areas. The effects of this instability on pupil morale and on quality of instruction can only be harmful.

Teachers who survive the initial impact have some opportunities for on-the-job training. Aside from the informal exchange of ideas at school, there are occasional in-service courses offered by the school system in New York City to make up for some of the deficiences in pre-service preparation. Relatively few such offerings are available, and those that exist can amount to no more than fragmentary patchwork. There is no systematic plan of coursework that might be considered interrelated and sequential.

Nor do the colleges provide much more for in-service teachers in their graduate programs, even where certification requirements play no influencing role. This is quickly evident from an examination of catalogues of three randomly selected large metropolitan colleges offering graduate programs in Education. One school lists eighteen offerings in Foundations of Education, seventy-one in Educational Methods, Supervision and Administration, and seventy-seven in Educational Psychology, Measurement and Guidance. Not a single one of these courses makes direct reference to the problems of culturally disadvantaged children and youth. Recipients of Masters and Doctoral degrees are no better prepared for dealing with these special problems as a result of their graduate training than they were at the outset.

Another catalogue, listing hundreds of courses, is issued by one of the largest teacher training institutions in the world. Here one can find several offerings relevant to teaching in low socio-economic areas. On the foundations level there are such titles as: "Diagnosis and Treatment of Social Conflict", "Current Problems in Human Development and Social Relations"; and "Independent Studies in Social Relations". There are also several meaningful sociology courses, including "The Urban Community and its Educational Problems"; "Studies in Acculturation"; "The Cultural Approach to the Understanding of Personality Development and Function"; "The Child With Problems in School and Community". Of the many methodology courses in elementary and secondary education, only one could be found: "Teaching Difficult Students in Secondary Schools". The Department of Administration and Supervision lists none. The same holds true for Guidance and Educational Psychology. Most important, this huge graduate center offers no major in the education of the culturally disadvantaged leading to a Masters or a Doctoral degree.

A third catalogue, issued by one of the large municipal colleges, is rich in these specialized offerings, but only relatively so. Most of the courses are by courtesy of the Department of Sociology and Anthropology and some typical titles are as follows: "Culture and Education"; "The Sociology of Child Development"; "Juvenile Delinquency"; "Inter-Cultural Relations"; "Urban Community Living"; and "Crime and Society". Otherwise, the courses in curriculum, instruction, guidance, and psychology are conventional. However, the school does offer a program specializing in the education of a large urban minority group, namely, children of Puerto Rican origin. This program includes special education and research workshops for teachers of these children, appropriate background courses in sociology, such as "Culture Change in Puerto Rico" and "Migration Groups in Metropolitan Areas" as well as some language courses to help establish a bi-lingual classroom setting. Important as this program is for teachers in many New York neighborhoods, it deals with only one of several educational problems in urban, depressed areas.

The foregoing trickle of offerings from three representative teacher training institutions in New York City represent meager pickings indeed. One could hardly judge from these course listings that teaching in depressed urban areas is of serious concern to educators. There is certainly no apparent recognition of a need for pre-and in-service teachers to be trained in any special way for work in such neighborhoods. Yet, it is often the ill-prepared teacher who is criticized for an insensitivity to problems of this kind. He is accused by well-meaning critics and reformers of failing to understand culturally disadvantaged children, failing to reach them through proper teaching methods and materials, and failing to guide them wisely toward self-fulfillment. Such scapegoating accomplishes nothing. Many individuals enter the teaching profession with altruism, sincerity and self-confidence only to find themselves utterly helpless in an unfamiliar classroom situation which they could not possibly have anticipated. Perhaps special preparation would not have made a difference in their success. Yet, there is too much at stake to avoid making appropriate attempts in this direction.

If teacher training colleges continue to ignore what it means to work in slum schools, the need for licensed personnel in these schools will remain critical if for no other reason than the fact that poorly oriented staff has little staying power. Ill-prepared novices will comprise the bulk of our teaching force in such schools and educational standards cannot help but suffer as a result. There is no panacea to correct this condition any more than there is one to eliminate human misery and deprivation. Nor is it fair to pin the blame or responsibility on any one group in the vast world of education. Everyone shares in some way, be it the educational philosopher, practitioner, or researcher. All that can be asked of teacher training institutions is to take cognizance of the nature and needs of depressed area children so as to prepare teachers to face them skillfully.

Were this to be done it would be a considerable accomplishment, particularly if it were followed up by research and evaluation. Indeed it may be one of the most important links in a network of interlocking efforts to solve a difficult, pressing and embarrassing problem in education today.

## IV

## IMPLICATIONS OF CHARACTERISTICS AND NEEDS OF LEARNERS IN SOCIALLY AND CULTURALLY DISADVANTAGED COMMUNITIES FOR THE PREPARATION OF BEACON SCHOOL PERSONNEL

In the preparation of school personnel for service to socially and culturally disadvantaged children, the characteristics of these children suggest three categories of professional emphasis around which training experiences for school personnel need to be organized.

A. Home, Community and School Analysis

B. Child Appraisal

C. Psycho-Educational Processes and Their Guided Development

### A. Home, Community and School Analysis:

1. The usual social class, economic group and cultural system indentifications of school personnel in the United States render most of such persons deficient in their knowledge and attitudes toward the people and the neighborhoods which constitute the families and homes of children from disadvantaged backgrounds. Therefore, one area of crucial preparation for most school personnel in Project Beacon will be the nature of the homes and communities from which such children come. Teachers and other educational personnel require awareness of the following factors influencing the academic behavior of disadvantaged area pupils and parents:

(a) family disorganization and familial patterns other than those common in American, White, middle class society.

(b) patterns of community disorganization (poverty, delinquency, unemployment, migrancy, illiteracy) other than those common in American, White, middle class society.

(c) cultural biases (attitudes toward study and intellecturalization, toward social advancement, toward postponement of gratifications), cultural loyalties, cultural conflicts and congruences, other than those common in American, White, middle class society.

(d) their own(i.e., the teachers' own) backgrounds, abilities and values, as potentially biasing and facilitating characteristics in working with parents and pupils from deprived areas.

(e) community welfare organizations - public and private, oriented toward the individual or toward the group - designed to meet human needs in such matters as family relationships, physical and mental health, economic security and legal protection. The potential for collaboration between such agencies and the school.

The above mentioned awarenesses may be instilled by the following courses, field work, and seminar experiences.

| Courses (for pre-service and in-service personnel) | Field Work (primarily for pre-service personnel) |
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|---|---|
| (i) The Urban Community: The ecology of cities; development of urban institutions and agencies; effects on personality, health, family, religion, population, and government; social pathology and urban blight; planning for redevelopment; research methods. | (i) Visits to police courts, hospitals, community group-work agencies, governmental departments, community case-work agencies, religious authorities; integrating seminar on social organization. |
| (ii) Ethnic Relations in the U.S.: Intergroup relations, acculturation, cultural pluralism and self-maintenance; prejudice and patterns of adjustment; social, legal, educational and economic status of minorities. | (ii) Visits to intergroup agencies, governmental departments, self-maintenance institutions. Integrating seminar. |
| (iii) Social Psychology of Education: The relevance of familial, communal, religious, cultural and other social factors for the educational functioning of pupils, teachers, and parents. | (iii) Case study of the resolution of a child-centered administrative problem in an assigned Beacon school. |

In conjunction with such courses, field experiences and seminars, the GSE will undertake to systematically collect, organize, and release for professional use information and teacher training material dealing with the impact of home and community factors on deprived-area schools.

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| (iv) Psychology of Minority Group Children Analysis of child-rearing practices in American minority groups; differential value systems, attitudes toward education and social institutions, aspirations and expectations, and personality pattern trends in minority cultural and ethnic groups and socially disadvantaged populations. | (iv) Participation in opinion sampling survey covering at least 10 appropriately selected families. Integrating seminar. |

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| (v) Guidance and Education Introduction to the guidance of children and youth in elementary and secondary schools; history, theoretical foundations, principles and ethics of guidance; significance for pupil adjustment of social, economic and ethnic group status; cultural influences and varieties of extra-school experiences; implications for guidance function. | (v) Observation of guidance programs and services in PROJECT BEACON schools. |

2. For many of the PROJECT BEACON children school will emerge as the sole or major consistently stabilizing influence in their lives. The school may serve as the vehicle through which most of their growth needs and sustaining experiences are mediated. An understanding of the sociology of this institution and the dynamics of its function is a second area of learning need for school personnel. Teachers and other educational personnel specializing for discharge of responsibilities with disadvantaged area pupils and parents require awareness of the following within-school factors:

(a) Structural and functional factors influencing school policy, procedure and potential: (community control; administration and faculty as foci of influence; departmental organization; certificational, salary, training and other within-faculty differential).

(b) Group-dynamics of intra-professional, as well as teacher-pupil and pupil-pupil relations. Obtaining group understanding, acceptance, and assistance.

The teacher as a focal point of influence on colleagues, pupils, and community.

The above mentioned awarenesses may be instilled by the following course, field work and seminar experiences.

| Course | Seminar and lecture series |
|---|---|
| The School as a Microcosm: Conscious and unconscious within-school barriers moderating the effectiveness of the specially trained teacher; institutional analysis and group dynamics in group decision making and goal-directed behavior. | Clinical case seminars, in conjunction with student teaching or internship, with the participation of in-service clinical instructors, (teachers, administrators and others). |

In connection with this combined course and clinical seminar, the GSE will undertake to systematically collect, organize and release for professional use information and teacher training material pertaining to the impact of within-school factors on professional effectiveness within deprived area schools.

3. In addition to understanding the school as an instutution, it is important that school personnel understand and master the dynamics of classroom inter-action. The application of knowledge of individual and group behavior to facilitate learning in group situations and as a vehicle of motivation and attitudinal change will be a recurrent task in BEACON classrooms. These awarenesses and skills may be instilled by the following course:

[illegible]
Classroom Management.

Current theories and research related to the operation of classroom groups based on mental health principles. Group attitudes, communication channels, development of power structure, lines of influence and group boundaries; specific classroom operations such as teacher structuring of expected behavior, use of peer controls, group behavior and guidance methods, control of behavior contagion, methods of coping with poor behavior; general behavior education and the physical use of the classroom in dealing with group behavior will be examined.

Course will make use of public school classes for observation and community center groups for field experience in group management.

4. Several courses in standard G.S.E. teacher training curricula also have content and emphases appropriate to the training concerns of PROJECT BEACON in the area of Home, Community and School Analysis.

Among these are:

Social Foundations of Education

History of Educational Thought

The School in American Society

Research Methods in the Behavioral Sciences

Economics and Society

Sociological Analysis

Sociology of the Family

Social Change and Social Disorganization

Cultural Anthropology

Certain of the above courses are also included in *BEACON* programs and have been modified or enriched so as to be of particular benefit to *BEACON* trainees.*

## B. Child Appraisal:

We have identified as a critical task for school personnel that of determining the nature of the learner and the quality of the learner's experience. The importance of the qualitative appraisal and descriptive analysis of the pupil's capacities (strengths and deficits) and of the dynamics of the pupil's development (historical, contemporary and anticipated) cannot be over-emphasized in this program. All *BEACON* personnel will need specialized orientation and competence in the area of child appraisal. The following are examples of *BEACON* courses and field work in this area.

| Courses | Field work |
|---|---|
| *Techniques of Child and Environmental Appraisal*<br>A study of the interpretation and utilization of educational, psychological, social case work, medical and psychiatric data in the appraisal of children and their conditions of life. Orientation and sensitization to qualitative analysis of behavior and experience in relation to the planning of educational strategies. Emphasis will be given to the use of the case study and the cumulative record in identification and screening; diag- | Students will utilize the Graduate School of Education's Center and Developmental Evaluation Clinic Conferences for field experience and clinical as well as school data for records analysis. |

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* E.g., see course outline for the *History of Educational Thought* for BEACON pre-service students.

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| nosis and placement; curriculum design and modification; management and continuous appraisal. | |
| Mental and Educational Measurement<br>Measurement of intellectual and educational functioning; nature and utilization of standardized and non-standardized tests and procedures; principles and practices of test construction; problems of appraisal in multi-cultural populations; evaluation in the educational process. | Students will examine sample testing materials and observe measurement procedures in the Psychological Center. |
| Socio-Cultural Disadvantage and Associated Learning Disabilities<br>Primary abilities (perceptual discrimination, retention, conceptualization, communication and motor coordination) as they are effected by early and prolonged social and cultural disadvantage. | Students will observe selected subjects in the Psychological Center and at PROJECT BEACON schools. |
| Diagnosis of Specific Learning Disabilities<br>Identification and evaluation of specific learning disabilities; disturbances in perceptual discrimination and habituation, symbolic representation, concept formation and generalization, quantitative conceptualization, and memory. | Students will conduct psycho-educational evaluations under supervision in the Psychological Center and at PROJECT BEACON schools. |
| Advanced Psychometric Methods<br>Design of strategies in the evaluation of potential for learning and patterns of adaptation; utilization of a variety of procedures and instruments in the appraisal of typical and underachieving children. | Students will be afforded supervised laboratory experience in the Psychological Center. |

Other standard G.S.E. courses appropriate to the area of Child Appraisal are as follows:

- *Measurement and Appraisal for Counselors*
- *Intelligence and Personality Appraisal I & II*
- *Psychometric Theory and Methods I & II*
- *Practicum in Guidance I*
- *Practicum in School Psychology*

Certain of the above courses are included in *BEACON* programs.

### C. Psycho-Educational Processes and Their Guided Development

The *BEACON* trainee must not only know how to accurately appraise the child but he must know how to act on the basis of such appraisals; he must know how to utilize the principals of educational and developmental psychology and the practices of modern pedagogy to bring about the types of academic-cognitive growth that are needed by disadvantaged children. Thus psycho-educational processes and their guided development are a particularly vital area of specialization for *BEACON* trainees.

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| *Child Development and Learning*<br>Growth, developmental and adaptation patterns in infancy and childhood, implications for academic, psychological and social learning. | Students observe appropriate age groups in school and community agency settings. |
| *Adolescent Development and Learning*<br>Adolescence and maturity as related to educational and social development; implications for academic, psychological and social learning. | Students observe appropriate age groups in school and community agency settings. |

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| Educational Psychology<br>Applied psychology in education; organization of behavior, individual differences, perception, cognition, motivation, learning and evaluation as related to the educational process. (Note course outline in Chapter V, below.) | Students participate in ongoing PROJECT BEACON field research projects as assistants in observation and data collection. |
| Comparative Education<br>Contrast and comparison of alternative systems of education within the United States, as well as between the United States and Great Britain, the Soviet Union, and other nations. | Students observe differences in curricular patterns and emphases in varying metropolitan area schools (disadvantaged communities and more privileged neighborhoods). |
| Teaching Language Arts K-6<br>Teaching oral and written communication through consideration of (a) listening, speaking and reading; (b) children's literature and enriched experiences; and (c) handwriting, spelling and creative writing. | Student internship in PROJECT BEACON Schools. Integrating Seminar. |
| Teaching Mathematics K-6<br>Quantitative and numerical concept development; denominate numbers, mental computation, and estimation; practical problem solving; integration of response to concrete and abstract stimuli; sequence in teaching the fundamental processes. | Student internship in PROJECT BEACON schools. Integrating seminar. |
| Teaching Social Studies K-6<br>Introduction of social concepts through study of the society in which the child lives; progression through neighborhood, city, state, nation, world; utilization of experience related unit teaching and current events. | Students teaching in PROJECT BEACON schools. Integrating Seminar. |

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| **Social Disadvantage and Special Class Functions**<br>Nature and extent of communication and other interactions in the child's social environment during pre-school years; relationship of limited mobility and circumscribed experience to status of the preschool handicapped child and indicated curriculum modifications. | |
| **Informational Resources in Guidance**<br>Identification, evaluation and utilization of resource information in guidance; orientation to occupational and educational information and to community resources; lines of communication and cooperation in multi-agency collaboration. | Observation and assistance in referral services through Psychological Center and consultation with selected community agencies. |
| **Guidance of Socially Disadvantaged Children**<br>Characteristics and needs of socially disadvantaged children; significance for pupil adjustment of disadvantaged status, cultural differences and norm-varying patterns of stimulation; implications for guidance functions. | |
| **Concepts of Psycho-Educational Management**<br>Applications of the bio-social sciences to the modification of behavior; concepts underlying psychotherapeutic procedures; implications of intervention in the modification of behavior and personality development; processes of behavioral reeducation; development of planned, corrective social and psychological learning experiences. | |

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| Team Operations in Psycho-Educational Management<br>Roles of teacher, guidance worker, psychologist, social worker and school administrator in a multi-discipline team concerned with identification, prevention and rehabilitation of psycho-socially handicapped children. | Students observe and participate in multi-discipline conferences to plan psycho-educational strategies for selected children in PROJECT BEACON schools and the Psychological Center. |
| Seminar in Curriculum and Methods for Handicapped Socially Disadvantaged Children.<br>Theoretical and research considerations surrounding and integrating the problems of teachers, guidance workers and administrators working with handicapped, socially disadvantaged children. | Interdepartmental staff meets regularly with experienced special educators, guidance workers and administrators. |
| Experimentation in Psycho-Educational Processes<br>Review, design and participation in experimental programs in compensatory and accelerated learning experiences for the psycho-socially handicapped and other children. | Students will be assigned to the Program of Research in Normal and Aberrant Development (AECM), the Institute for Developmental Studies, and to PROJECT BEACON schools for student conducted experimentation and research under the supervision of senior research scientists and senior psycho-educational practitioners. |
| Remediation of Specific Learning Disabilities<br>Design and execution of remediation procedures for such learning disabilities as disturbance in perceptual discrimination and habituation, symbolic representation, concept formation, concept generalization, quantitative conceptualization, and memory. | Students will plan and conduct remedial procedures under supervision in the Psychological Center and in PROJECT BEACON Schools. |

Other standard GSE courses appropriate to the area of Psycho-Educational Processes and their Guided Development are as follows:

Human Development I and II
Patterns of Human Adjustment
Childhood Disorders of Behavior and Mentation
The Psycho-Socially Handicapped Child
Physical and Mental Health Status
Human Learning and Behavioral Change
Guidance in Elementary Education
Guidance in Secondary Education
Techniques of Guidance
Education of Exceptional Children
Psycho-social Problems of the Handicapped
Children's Literature K-6
Music for Elementary School Children
Arts and Crafts K-6
Science for Elementary Schools
Curriculum for Gifted Children and Youth
Diagnostic and Remedial Techniques in Reading
Principles of Psychotherapeutic Education
Curricular Patterns in Therapeutic Education
Curriculum Development in Therapeutic Education (K-6)
Curriculum Modifications in Therapeutic Education (Secondary)
Practicum in Therapeutic Education
Seminar in Therapeutic Education

Many of the above courses are included in BEACON programs and have been modified or enriched so as to be of particular benefit to BEACON trainees.

All of the above course listings do not automatically summate into training programs. Programs are more than a summation of courses. Programs imply integrating concepts and experiences. BEACON programs are presented in Chapter Six of this report.

## V. TWO ILLUSTRATIVE COURSE OUTLINES

The course outlines presented below pertain to two courses that have traditionally been included in training programs for teachers and other educational specialists. As such, they do not represent the more unique PROJECT BEACON courses and seminars mentioned in the previous chapter of this report. We have selected these two outlines for presentation here precisely because they help underscore the fact that BEACON training will be advanced not only through novel courses but also through courses whose titles seem familiar. BEACON oriented courses in Educational Psychology or in the History of Educational Thought will cover all of the topics that such courses traditionally cover. However, in addition, they will utilize lectures, discussions, assignments and field experiences to cover other topics that are particularly germane to the skills, sensitivities and understandings that PROJECT BEACON seeks to implant and develop in the trainee.

The two outlines that follow are not presented as models that can automatically be activated fully by all instructors. Every course inevitably incorporates a particular instructor's abilities, sensitivities, interests and biases. These outlines necessarily reflect the instructor who prepared them. Another instructor would undoubtedly modify these outlines and give these courses somewhat differently. Nevertheless, these outlines illustrate that the skilled and sympathetic instructor can infuse a great deal of BEACON-oriented material even into the standard courses for the training of educational personnel.

It is important to realize that standard courses will not be and cannot be entirely replaced in PROJECT BEACON. Nor will their standard content be discarded. The BEACON educator must first be an educator and then a BEACON specialist. If educational psychology is an important ingredient in the training of educators, and we believe it is, then BEACON students taking such a course must cover all of the principles of educational psychology that are normally covered by such a course. If this were not to be the case then BEACON programs might lead to the watering down or elimination of basic concepts and findings. Rather than do that, BEACON courses - whether tagged with traditional or novel titles - will seek to relate their basic concepts and findings to the disadvantaged child, his parents, his school and his community. This can be accomplished only on the basis of more effective instruction and higher levels of directed motivation on the part of instructors and students alike. This is part of the challenge that PROJECT BEACON must face.

## A. A PROJECT BEACON ORIENTED COURSE IN THE HISTORY OF EDUCATIONAL THOUGHT

This course outline focuses on the philosophy and history of education for pre-service students preparing at the graduate level to teach in socially disadvantaged area schools.

The serf, slave, peon, peasant and city proletarian have sometimes figured in the history and philosophy of education and sometimes not. Under the theme of History as Relevance, this course attempts to redress the usual imbalance in courses on the history and philosophy of education by comparing historical and contemporary ideas and events pertaining to disadvantaged groups and communities and by field responsibilities and field experiences in the deprived urban community to deepen the student's understanding of ideas and events, both historical and contemporary.

Since the approach is comparative, the typical chronological sequence of a history of education is not followed strictly. Instead, comparisons between the historical and the current are liberally employed within each topic. The result is a history of education depending heavily on philosophical considerations.

The educational problems presented by the deprived urban community, though not new, have never been specifically considered in their historical and philosophical contexts by the usual foundations course; however, only historical and philosophical contexts will insure that undertakings like PROJECT BEACON will approach these problems with the necessary seriousness and depth.

### Lecture 1. Traditionalism and Professionalism:

Knowledge of educational history contributes to professionalism; professionalism contributes to improved teaching; hence knowledge of educational history contributes to improved teaching, provided that this knowledge enables us to compare the contemporary scene with its antecedents.

The educational patterns of Egypt, Rome, Palestine and Greece also reveal a history of miseducation. The history of education and of miseducation exist side by side; one cannot develop a proper sense of professionalism--nor truly extend one's experiences--without considering both historical achievements and historical failures.

The quality of education, or "excellence" in John Gardner's phrase, has always troubled men. Plato suspected, as Gardner does, that education can only be excellent in the context of other education, less so. Both Gardner and Plato agree that education can be either excellent or undesirable. Therefore, excellence in education--bland as the term is--reflects a conflict situation. Excellence in education is impossible without a struggle against education which lacks excellence--though the struggle can range from violence, as in the death of Socrates, to a simple judgment, as in a distaste for progressive education, as Lawrence Cremin describes it. Excellence is not merely a concept; it is a weapon in debate.

Furthermore, the debate is not in vacuo but reflects social, economic, cultural and national divisions:

a. (1) Roger Bacon's attack on medieval theological instruction and the lecture method, and his defence of inquiry, discussion, and proof, undermined the deductive faith that supported the Medieval Church. (2) Similarly, in the medieval university, because education was affected by student opinion, excellence was a derivative of mass popularity, so that Abelard could use his command over his audience to bargain with the theology of his day.

b. The historian of medicine who deals with Paré and Sydenham also deals with the stupidities and superstitions of physicians who blindly followed Galen for a millennium and a half. A sense of medical tradition generates professionalism by indicating historical regress as well as historical progress.

c. Tradition powerfully affects values. A great problem in Negro education is the difficulty of spotlighting an educational tradition in Negro living that might contribute to Negro aspirations in a similar manner to the traditions that contribute so massively to Jewish living, or to upper and middle class living in most countries.

But tradition can also be enfeebling, as in Chinese and Hindu culture, where the dead hand of the past has no finger pointing to the future. Tradition enfeebles when it is not analytic, but it is tremendously enriching when coupled with analysis.

Negro leaders, deeply aware of the dynamic force of tradition, have therefore institutionalized Negro History Week, just as Jews have institutionalized Jewish Book Week, and just as certain Englishmen and Americans have institutionalized the English Speaking Union, or certain conservative circles have institutionalized the Daughters of the American Revolution. These are tradition-generating devices.

Essentially, however, one is not born into a tradition. One works at the business. The paid-up member of the D. A. R. who objects to Marion Anderson at Constitution Hall contributes to an American tradition with venerable antecedents in the Alien and Sedition bills of John Adam, the racial antipathies of a John Calhoun or Senator Bilbo, and the anti-immigrationism, isolationism, and anti-foreignism of much in American life. True, the Jew, Catholic, and Negro were in short supply during the American Revolution and in the landing at Plymouth Rock, which means merely that they were elsewhere. It does not disqualify contemporary Jews, Catholics, and Negroes from sharing in and fostering American traditions--if they will work at them.

The past presents many faces and hence many traditions. The traditions of France split into Bourbon nobility and Bonapartist nobility; constitutionalism in the United States splits into Hamiltonianism and Jeffersonianism (or strict versus loose constructionism and interpretation); Episcopalianism splits into High Church, Broad Church, and Low Church; Lutheranism splits into a variety of creeds, and Judaism similarly. Thus in medicine the tradition of treating the patient competes with the incompatible tradition of treating the disease. Philosophy has contending traditions of monism, dualism, empiricism, deduction and induction. In science and mathematics, traditions of applied versus pure thought find von Neumann debating with Gauss, and Soviet scientists debating with Western scientists.

Tradition, therefore, is not a unitary thing; it has effects in the present and echoes past contentions on the contemporary scene.

Among the variety of traditions in the history of education is one that assumes that the teacher is in a subordinate and unrespected position. Another assumes that the teacher is in a respected and venerable position. Sometimes these contending traditions are "resolved" by referring to the age of the student populations involved. The teacher of the young child is more likely to be subordinated and unrespected, while the teacher of the adolescent and young adult is more likely to be respected and venerated. Socrates and the Athenian sophists occupied powerful positions because they taught the young adult, but the Athenian teacher of young children was, as often as not, held in contempt. The importance of the teaching function (or teacher status) is felt to increase with the age of the student population. Yet the teacher's greatest impact is on the very young.

Negro history presents many parallels to the history of education. Thus far, neither Negroes nor teachers have been effective participants in the important decisions of history; whenever teachers became so, like Socrates or Seneca, they were reclassified as philosophers; whenever Negroes became so, like some of the Egyptian pharaohs, they were reclassified as Kings or as artists.

## Relevant Field Experiences and Responsibilities:*

The Schomburg Collection in Harlem houses an extensive collection on Negro history and on Negro contributions to general culture, thereby implying a need in the Negro community to participate in the larger current of American life. However, such a collection can also furnish materials for Negro separatism.

a. On the basis of your visits to the Schomburg Collection, what can you say about the primary purposes for which people put the collection to use?

b. What areas of Negro contribution seem to be most strongly represented? How would you compare Negro contributions in science as compared with Negro contributions in art, literature, and music?

c. Investigate the materials that have been recommended for Negro History Week, which are on file in the collection. Draw up lesson plans which utilize these materials for junior high school classes in a Negro neighborhood, explicitly stating the aims, motivations, and developmental problems that your lesson plans seek to handle.

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*Field experiences and research projects are not necessarily related directly to the lectures which they follow. These experiences and projects are intended to prepare students for future lectures and to broaden their familiarity with community problems and processes related to educational thought.

## Research, References and Resources:

a. I. Nosky, Arts in Ptolemaic Egypt, 1937, page 98, for a discussion of Nubians and Negroes in Alexandrian art.

b. See Cambridge Ancient History for a stimulating discussion of the incursions into Ancient Egypt by the Ethiopian tribes.

c. Jewish Encyclopedia: "The Falasha"

d. For the export of education via the Greek gymnasium, see Moses Hadas Humanism: The Greek Ideal and its Survival, Harper 1960, and Heinrich Graetz History of the Jews, Jewish Publication Society of America, 1941, Vol. 1 p. 427.

e. John Hope Franklin, Reconstruction, University of Chicago Press, 1961.

## Lecture 2. The Dangers of Education:

Education can be superstitious, stupid, limiting and contributory to a society's difficulties. Some education perpetuates the old, without incorporating it into the new, and encourages blind adherence to forms, without seeking new molds and new meanings.

This has always been so. One can ask: "Why was the Twentieth Century so late in arriving? Why did not the Twentieth Century arrive two thousand years ago? Why did the knowledge of Alexandria disappear and why did the Dark Ages appear, when the Alexandrians were virtually on top of everything that the Renaissance re-discovered?"

The Alexandrians had the precursor knowledge in mathematics and science that could easily lead to the steam engine, engineering and architecture. Fifteen hundred years of darkness are evidence that poor education has been as dominating in history as good education.

Certain groups in all societies prefer perpetuating the old to inaugurating the new; some prefer freezing vested interests to investigating fresh possibilities in society, in culture, and in knowledge. More specifically, societies have used education to strengthen themselves against rival societies. Note:

a. The contemporary American efforts to use education to strengthen ourselves against the Russians. These parallel Communist efforts to use education to strengthen themselves against the United States.

b. Plato's Republic and the effort to strengthen Athens against the other Greek cities; Cato the Elder and his effort to stem the tide of Hellenic culture.

c. Baron Stein, Fichte, Zeller and the use of Pestalozzian methods to strengthen Prussia after the Treaty of Tilsit.

d. Jesuit education after the Protestant Reformation and the Ratio Studiorum.

Despite the technological, spiritual, and psychological strength that education gives to a society, it can also lead to a debilitated society, as in Spanish, Chinese and Hindu education, where forms are frozen and the past becomes stereotyped and uniform, rather than diverse and even dissident.

Many current disputes in education continue in channels set by the past. See, for example, Aristotle on progressive education in The Politics, (Book VIII):

> "Consideration must be given to what constitutes education and what is the proper way to be educated. At present there are differences of opinion as to the proper tasks to be set; for all peoples do not agree as to the things that the young ought to learn, either with a view to virtue or with a view to the best life, nor is it clear whether their studies should be regulated more with regard to intellect or with regard to character."

Does this mean that in education there is nothing new under the sun? No, for universal compulsory education is relatively "new" as is much in the curriculum (and here history offers no guides to our problems). If nothing under the sun is entirely new, then history can offer numerous examples, precedents, and guides. But if history offers only records of novel, unique, and unprecedented occurrences, it becomes less reliable as a guide.

In either case, history extends our experience--if we can learn from experience, we can learn from history. Unfortunately, not everyone can.

Take as an illustration, the separation of a child from its home to place it in a formally organized school setting. Today, we accept such removal because most children around us are so removed:

1. Compare Cato's refusal to entrust the education of his children to tutors, lest they be incompetent, with Quintilian's belief that the best place for an education was not the home but the school. Cato educated his children himself. Quintilian thought the school more responsible and rewarding than education

under home auspices.

2. In The Republic, Book III, the school, rather than the home, becomes the dominating influence in the child's life. Here Spartan practices of child rearing are described and approved.

3. The 1961 Draft Program of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union formally institutionalizes the removal of the child from the family as early as in the third month of life, to bring it more intimately into contact with the resources of the state. (New York Times Magazine, August 27, 1961).

4. In Israeli kibbutz-life the child is placed with a house mother, while its parents contribute their working day to the kibbutz. (Abram Kardiner, Saturday Review, August 28, 1961

5. In Harlem family life the working mother leaves the young child to whatever neighborhood or family facilities she can find, in order to go to a job. (Paul L. Crawford, Daniel I. Malamud, and James R. Dumpson, Working with Teen-Age Gangs, Welfare Council of New York City, 1950.

Separation occurs because family-society relationships supersede family-child relationships. The wisdom of the society-dominated decision is questioned by Abram Kardiner in his discussion of Israeli kibbutz-life (cited above) and by Urie Bronfenbrenner in the New York Times Magazine article (above) because of consequences for the personality structure of a child so reared and the kind of contributing citizen he ultimately makes.

Relevant Field Experiences and Responsibilities:

1. Interview the directors and personnel of day-care centers located in various Harlem housing projects, to determine the chief sources of support of these centers, their programs, and the adequacy of the preparation their pupils get for school. Analyze the budget and curriculum. Also interview personnel at All Day Neighborhood Schools.

2. Interview personnel at various "Higher Horizons" schools to determine community interest, level of student participation, and outcomes in attitude and achievement which may result from after-school programs carried on under "Higher Horizons" auspices, in their recreational, subject-matter coaching, and arts-and-crafts facilities.

## Research, References, and Resources:

1. In discussing the Greek-built lighthouse at Alexandria, E. M. Forster says: "Visitors speak of a mysterious 'mirror' on the summit, which was even more wonderful than the building itself.....Some accounts describe it as made of finely wrought glass or transparent stone, and declare that a man sitting in it could see ships at sea that were invisible to the naked eye. A telescope? Is it possible that the great Alexandrian school of mathematics discovered the lens?.....It is certain that the lighthouse was fitted with every scientific improvement known to the age." (Alexandria: A History and a Guide. Doubleday Anchor, 1961. Page 146.)

2. Compare the above with Chapter 7, "The Fall of Rome", in Herbert J. Muller's The Uses of the Past, Mentor paperback, especially in the contributions of city life to civilization: ".....the municipality--the basis of the empire--had collapsed. At its peak the empire resembled a federation of city-states....."

3. Since America is becoming predominantly urban, how can urban education prevent large-city decay? To what extent does internal urban deprivation constitute a greater threat to American institutions than external Communism? See Lewis Mumford's opening chapter in The City in History, Harcourt Brace and World, 1961.

## Lecture 3. State versus Individual in Education:

In the Peloponnesian Wars, the child raised under the strict Spartan system triumphed over the child raised under the libertarian Athenian system. Spartan education was state-oriented and state-supervised, and centralized under the agogé. At its lower levels, responsibility was delegated to the Eiren, a youth who supervised the training of the younger children, in a monitorial system reminiscent of Lancastrian education (q. v.) just as organized fighting among Spartan youth is reminiscent of German university duelling clubs. Physical punishment and flogging characterized Spartan education.

As Spartan youth was taught to answer, Athenian youth was taught to question. Physical education in Athens also prepared for war, as it did in Sparta, but in Athens it also considered grace and athletic competence. Poetry and music were extensively involved in Athenian education.

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Both the Athenian and Spartan heritages have been transmitted across geography and across history. The Spartan seems perpetuated in the Israeli kibbutz and in the 1961 Draft Platform, mentioned above, while the Athenian heritage seems perpetuated in Progressive Education, as Cremin describes it.

The low ceiling and single-track purpose in Spartan educational aspirations allowed clear-cut selection of the more able warrior. The broader purposes of Athenian education aimed at a more broadly-based citizenry that could be involved in democratic political processes. Nevertheless, there was provision for the more privileged, if not more able child, especially in the later stages of ephebic education/

The Romans also placed state considerations above individual considerations, except for the development of the more able. But both Athenian and Roman schools were affected by an indifference to education for the ordinary child and by indifference to quality in the instructor.

Where the less able are an expendable resource, and where instructional quality is of no importance, the quality of education for the more able is affected. This is clearly seen in both Athenian and Roman education in their later stages. The standards of Quintilian were ignored and a tendency to have the school assume responsibilities of the home and family accelerated the degradation of the educational process for the more and the less able, because instructional standards were low and the teacher, often a slave, was held in contempt.

The consequence was a weakening both in child-family and state-family relationships as an aspect of the general decline in the Roman world.

Today child-family relationships are subordinated to state-family relationships chiefly in low income homes. The state moves into the picture in those Harlem homes where family structure is attenuated; state responsibility, in the form of day-care centers and welfare allowances, takes over. If the antecedent experiences of Athens and Rome are applicable here we can again anticipate that state intervention on the upper levels of educational endeavor will bring about all the disastrous results that state's-rights advocates predict, unless the professional competence of teachers is improved.

We cannot evaluate state intervention without consideration of teacher competence and teacher preparation. For most of history the low status of the teacher was a consequence of his low contribution to the educational process and the feeling that early education was not important and was remediable in the later stages of education. Only in the last few years have standards and preparation for the elementary school teacher been tightened and made equivalent to those expected of the secondary school teacher. Such requirements form the framework of any discussion of status, because standards precede and are prerequisite to status. Given such standards, we can avoid the institutionalizing effects of state intervention that Kardiner and Bronfenbrenner deplore, thus making it more defensible to remove the socially disadvantaged child--of any ability level --from the deleterious influences of home and community.

Thus, improved professional standards in the low income community guarantee improved standards in the upper income community as well and are the best hedge against the erosion of education observable in classical and medieval examples of state intervention in education.

Relevant Field Experiences and Responsibilities:

1. Interview Youth Board workers to determine the qualities they find in the gang leader and how gang leadership emerges. Also determine what happens to the gang leader when he grows out of adolescence. Is he more or less likely than the usual gang member to adjust satisfactorily to adult requirements? Is he more or less likely than the average group member to seek to improve himself?

2. Interview Urban League personnel to determine if job oppportunities for Negroes in the skilled trades and the professions are wider than the number of Negroes who are sufficiently skilled and trained to fit these job requirements. Is there any unemployment among Negroes trained as mathematicians, scientists, automobile mechanics, or teachers?

3. Interview personnel at an Unemployment Insurance office for the same information as in #2.

Readings, References, and Resources:

Since status in teaching cannot be divorced from teacher-competence, consider the following quotations and discuss:

1. In Robert Graves' introduction to Lucan's Pharsalia, Penguin paperback, 1957, page 10, an early use of the classics in preparing for vocational education is described: "It became fashionable to study at Athens, the centre of Greek culture. There the Roman student discovered that he could hope to graduate as a diplomat only after taking a master's degree in rhetoric; and that rhetoric, the art of persuading an opponent by flattery, threats, or fraud to accept one's own proposition, however unsound, would help him win magisterial elections and plead public causes with confidence, besides being a valuable adjunct to warfare."

a. Are vocational education and liberal education closer together or further apart than in the days of the Romans?

b. In upper-class education are vocational education and liberal arts education closer together or further apart than they are in the education that a Negro boy receives in the New York City schools?

2. The following quotations appear in Alfred North Whitehead's The Aims of Education, Mentor paperback, 1958, page 51: "The typical education of our public schools was devised for boys from well-to-do cultivated homes. They travelled in Italy, in Greece, and in France, and often their own homes were set amid beauty. None of these circumstances hold for modern national education in primary or secondary schools, or even for the majority of boys and girls in our enlarged system of public schools.....Today we deal with herded town populations, reared in a scientific age." On page 64: "A technical education is not to be conceived as a maimed alternative to the perfect Platonic culture." On page 66: "Of all types of men today existing, classical scholars are the most remote from the Greeks of the Periclean times."

a. Can "herded town populations" gain the education available to privileged classes? Should they?

b. Whitehead, ibid, page 95, in the section, "Universities and Their Function," describes the need for schools of business and commerce, saying that the first job of the university is imparting the sense of zest, excitement, and imagination in learning. How does this apply to the opposition of liberal arts departments to education courses in colleges? How can colleges insure a sense of discovery of knowledge, so that scholars are simultaneously involved in discovery and in the past?

3. From Norbert Wiener's The Human Use of Human Beings, Doubleday Anchor, 1954, page 112: "The extraordinarily precise news-gathering services of the Venetian ambassadors (which form one of our chief sources of European history) accompanied a national jealousy of secrets, exaggerated to such an extent that the state ordered the private assassination of emigrant artisans, to maintain the monopoly of certain chosen arts and crafts. The modern game of cops and robbers which seems to characterize both Russia and the United States, the two principal contestants for world power of this century, suggests the old Italian cloak-and-dagger melodrama played on a much larger stage."

a. In light of this quotation, are there secrets which the dominant society keeps from the minority society of Negro groups? Are there secrets which the minority society's leaders keep from the dominant society?

b. See James Baldwin's "Letter From a Region in My Mind" New Yorker, November 17, 1962, page 59, for a discussion of Negro prophets and the Black Muslims, pluralism in American culture, and Negro separatism as a new social force.

## Lecture 4. Vocationalism versus Liberalism:

Classical education, Renaissance education, and contemporary education join in objecting to the trivial and purely amusing masquerading as education, but their definitions of the trivial have varied. Cicero, in De Oratore, devoted much time to speech and elocution, and, together with ancient writers, claims that rhetoric is the apex of man's studies. These days, especially in higher education, far less importance is granted to course work in speech; today, driver education and athletics are not regarded as important parts of the curriculum--but classical and Renaissance educators might have disagreed with our assessment.

For example, Roger Ascham in Toxophilus stresses the value of archery in the Elizabethan curriculum, as does the Renaissance Italian, Baldesare Castiglione, in Il Corteggiano (The Courtier), but recent critics of American education deplore bowling, golf, and driver education in the modern high school curriculum. Is Ascham's defense of archery applicable to golf, bowling, and driver education? The ancient writers on education--Aristotle, Quintilian, Cicero--thought that preparation for effectively practiced citizenship was an essential part of education, a view that would be fought by today's classicists like Gilbert Highet, Jacques Barzun, and Arthur Bestor.

Similarly, Plato and the Romans urge that horsemanship has an important place in the education of youth, but contemporary clasicists say that driver education dilutes education. Would Plato defend driver education as he defends equestrianship? For what kind of youth, in what kind of schools, do we ask the question?

Play, as part of study, is found in ancient curricula and modern ones. But children are not uniform, nor are their origins, nor their play needs. Would schools in Harlem need more or less stress on athletics than schools in Scarsdale? Would greater investments in play facilities in Harlem, like swimming pools and athletic fields, dilute the quality of education or improve it? Is the talmudist in his study, or the scientist in his laboratory, hard at work or hard at play? These are related matters. Pliny describes how cheer contributes to study, studia hilaritate proveniunt, and we can quote Montaigne amply on pedantry, and Francis Bacon on how study makes the full man, but what kind of study does Bacon have in mind? Is it all sobriety or partly play? Quintilian, characteristically, insists on the proper interaction of play and work for Roman youth, and Athenian education saw play as integrated with study.

Vocationalism and liberalism represent different approaches to education that could be resolved by a play component in study. From the ancients to the moderns, men have realized that some kinds of study were pointless and others useful, depending on the sense of grace and play involved in study. The cloistered medieval monk at study was involved in the same materials as Abelard at the University of Paris, and we need only compare the pious fruitlessness of the one with the frenzied excitement of the other, the absence of emotiveness in one and the excess of emotionality in the other, to see that the proper relationship of work and play spares humanity the search for knowledge that confuses pursuit of its own tail with the pursuit of light.

Play stands in opposition to tragedy, but not in opposition to work. Even men with the tragic sense of life, like Milton and Bunyan, have not been joyless. Otherwise their tragedy would have been suicidal. Instead they contributed to affirmations that were ultimately ecstatic in their visions and insights. Play leads to optimism.

The Negro child who plays hard, especially under a supervised and directed play program, has made the first breakthrough toward a meaningful, serious work program; but the play program and the work program must come to him under common auspices, so that he sees them as having a unitary origin.

Relevant Field Experiences and Responsibilities:

1. Interview sports and amusement editors at Amsterdam News and Ebony on the values and importance of sports items in their publications.

2. Interview sports coaching personnel at Harlem settlement houses and Y's to determine the extent and participation of sports programs at these agencies.

Readings, References, and Resources:

Discuss the quotations below on work, play, and leisure:

1. From William H. Whyte Jr. The Organiztion Man, Doubleday Anchor paperback, 1956, page 20: "Hard Work? What price capitalism, the question is now so frequently asked, unless we turn our productivity into more leisure, more of the good life? To the organization man this makes abundant sense, and he is as sensitive to the bogy of overwork and ulcers as his forebears were to the bogy of slothfulness. But he is split. He believes in leisure, but so does he believe in the Puritan insistence on hard, self-denying work."

2. From Baldesar Castiglione The Book of the Courtier, Doubleday Anchor paperback, 1959, page 42: "If anyone is to acquire grace in bodily exercises.... he must begin early and learn the principles from the best of teachers."

3. From Essays of Montaigne, "Of Pedantry", The Modern Library, page 116: "We labour but to cram our memory, and leave the understanding and the conscience empty. Even as the birds sometimes fly in search of grain, and bring it in their beaks without tasting it, to feed their young, so do our pedants go picking knowledge out of books, carrying it at the end of their lips, only to spit it out and scatter it to the winds.... It is remarkable how aptly I come in to exemplify this folly. Am I not doing the same thing in the most part of this composition? I go sniffing about among books, now here, now there, for the sentences which please me, not to store them, for I have no storehouse, but to transplant them to this book, where, to tell the truth, they are no more mine than they were before."

4. Ibid, "Of the Education of Boys," page 142: "It is wonderful how solicitous Plato shows himself, in his Laws, about the gaiety and pastimes of the youth of his city, and how much he dwells on their races, games, songs, leaps, and dances, of which he says that antiquity has given the ordering and patronage to the gods them selves....."

5. From Bernard Shaw's "The Revolutionist's Handbook", in Man and Superman: "Mens sana in corpore sano is a foolish saying. The sound body is a product of the sound mind."

6. From Aldous Huxley's "The Oddest Science", in Collected Essays, Bantam Books, 1960: "If you teach an individual first to be aware of his physical organism and then to use it as it was meant to be used, you can often change his entire attitude to life and cure his neurotic tendencies. But this, of course, is something which no one-sided psychologist has been taught to do, or would approve of doing, even if he knew how. He just goes on with free association and dream analysis, and hopes for the best." (page 322).

In discussing the above quotations, relate to the use of sports among Negroes to gain social mobility.

## Lecture 5. Work and Leisure:

Can driver education contribute to the study of Latin and Greek? Plato thought that equestrianship fitted youth for greater effectiveness in living, and Ascham felt that archery strengthened the sinews of mind and body which could thereafter contribute to a more competent Elizabethan courtier. Mens sana in corpore sano characterized Ascham's Elizabethan gentleman, Castiglione's Renaissance knight, and the Englishmen of the Regency whose victory at Waterloo was attributed to the playing feilds of Eton and Harrow. Horsemanship, archery, and rugby once seemed to have had legitimate educational functions. Do bowling and golf today?

But the gentleman is not always the scholar. The dimensions of play must be differentially represented in the training of each. The training of the gentleman tends to an excess of play, as in eighteenth century Oxford and Cambridge, where young aristocrats were at play until they reached their majority. The training of scholars tends to a progressive diminution of play, so that universities, unless care is taken, become museums, and museums, unless care is taken, become mausoleums--a matter noted and discussed by Comenius and Pestalozzi.

With disadvantaged communities and students, a program of play must be integrated into a study program for subsequent benefits in the study program. Play becomes irresponsibility when separated from study. Rousseau, in Emile, says the most desirable condition is to have study become play.

Our society no longer works as hard to meet its needs as societies once did. Recent debates about the New Leisure repeat discussions in Aristotle about the need for leisure and a slave class (or automated technology) that can generate this leisure. The New Leisure extends across all society, and is not restricted to aristocrats in Plato's Academy or Aristotle's Lyceum. It also involves us in work-play relationships as in the case of professional athletes, who are paid for playing, or the business man closing deals on the golf course, who plays at his work. In other words, work-play relationships are intimately interwoven on upper status levels but are more clearly differentiable on lower status levels. Hence a major responsibility in education for the lower classes is to bring work into driver education courses, so that the chemistry of gasoline and the physics of the internal-combustion engine become part of the task. Similarly, one must bring the underprivileged child to Latin, history, and literature, and teach him how to play with them.

However, in contrast to the Renaissance humanists like Petrarch and Erasmus, and later writers like the Victorian Herbert Spencer, who affirmed that pleasure must accompany study, comes the more sobering thought from Ecclesiastes, "For in much wisdom is much vexation; and he that increaseth knowledge increaseth sorrow." Yet in the closing lines we find a change: "He pondered, and sought out, and set in order many proverbs. Koheleth sought to find out words of delight....." Similarly, in Ecclesiastes, we find, "Of making books there is no end; and much study is a weariness of the flesh," but he wrote these words after he had finished writing his book, not before. Study wearies the flesh when unaccompanied by play.

Such study is pedantry. Pedantry is static and keeps knowledge in an encapsulated state. True knowledge is dynamic, and forever on the quest of the unexplored. Pedantry is devoid of play. Knowledge interacts with it.

### Relevant Field Experiences and Responsiblities:

1. An important task of the Negro press, like *Ebony*, *Amsterdam News*, and other periodicals is to build a sense of pride and tradition in its readers. In addition, the Negro press declares to non-Negro advertisers and companies by statistics from governmental and private agencies that Negroes comprise an important economic and consuming section of the public. Thus commercial media augment the Negro's self-image and the Negro's sense of contribution to American life. From these statistics:

a. Are Negroes heavier or lighter consumers of alcoholic beverages?

b. Has Negro income increased as rapidly as non-Negro income has increased?

c. What are the trends in Negro and non-Negro purchasing patterns in clothing? home furnishings? automobiles? drugs and medicines?

2. What reasons do Negro editors give for restrictions on circulation and advertising in the Negro press? How do they think that circulation and advertising can be extended?

### Research, References, and Resources:

1. See the following articles in *Fortune* magazine for articles on the New Leisure: Survey of Leisure, March 1949, Gilbert Cross "The Costly Crush to Get Outdoors", July 1962; Dero Saunders and Sanford Parker, "Thirty Billion Dollars for Fun," June 1954, Charles Silberman, "Money Left Over for the Good Life," November 1959, page 134.

2. Robert Bendiner, "Could You Stand a Four-Day-Week?" *Reporter*, August 8, 1957.

3. P.F. Douglass, "Recreation in the Age of Automation", *Annals of the American Academy*, Spring 1957.

4. Georges Friedman, "Leisure in an Automated World", *Nation*, September 1, 1962. Also see Reply, *Nation*, September 15, 1962.

## Lecture 6. Technology and Automation:

The antithesis between vocationalism and liberalism may be a false one, and evidence accumulates that it is indeed false: but it pervades the history of education and is related to the inheritance of class and caste privileges by right of birth.

From one point of view all education is vocational; when Harvard was founded in 1636 to prepare ministers, the training was related to vocation. Plato's students at the Academy studied philosophy to participate more effectively in the affairs of state (see the Robert Graves quotation above); the Roman student studied rhetoric and law to take his place in the ruling group; monastic training was related to vocation; even the training of the Renaissance humanists was involved with a profession by which one could earn one's bread. Perhaps liberal education is vocational education that prepares the student for status-related jobs, while vocational education prepares for non-status-related jobs. Thus fees and salaries and retainers become differentiated from wages.

The demarcation between liberal and vocational education was much clearer before the Industrial Revolution, but has become extremely cloudy in the last decade, with the advent of automated processes. Automation promises to reduce the area of unskilled labor to the vanishing point. Simultaneously, it promises to upgrade vocational training to the more demanding level of technical education--blue collar workers must be trained to become white collar workers or technicians lest they perish in the harsh light of requirements of an automated age for people familiar with complex machinery, data processing, programing, and industrial techniques. All areas of labor, from typesetters to longshoremen to railroad workers, are being affected. The non-laboring public is also affected by these changes. Newspaper strikes, dock strikes, railroad strikes and jurisdictional disputes emerge from only a partial move toward automation (December 1962).

The pressure for more advanced training will become especially acute among Negro and other underprivileged youth as the availability of unskilled jobs diminishes. James Conant's recommendation for rapidly obsolescent vocational training in Slums and Suburbs is therefore as out of date as the similar program in Booker T. Washington's 19th century program for vocational training in Up From Slavery. At least the latter had the merit of being contemporaneous. The Conant program, at the very moment of writing is behind the needs of the 1960's. Both Washington's program, three-quarters of a century old, and the Conant program, presumably contemporaneous, are inappropriate for Harlem youth today. The education now available in vocational schools (like beauty culture and restaurant service) is accompanied by courses in electronics, auto mechanics, and office skills--the latter, high in technical requirements, must be additionally upgraded so that greater demands are placed on students in such courses.

However, at this upgraded level technical education also begins to have strong cultural and liberal infusions, since an ability to use language, science, and mathematics is mandatory. Too often, vocational courses train for the gas station attendant or the grease monkey, and not for the auto mechanic. The man who services an automated device must be trained even beyond the level of training of the auto mechanic.

Training at this level is disturbing and meaningless to the student who may not have a vision of the economic and social possibilities open to him as a result of such training. The English Luddites (1811-1816) wrecked machinery because they preferred working in their old patterns and failed to see that the innovations in machinery not only made more goods more available more cheaply, but also made more available the channels of occupational mobility, once training facilities were provided for workingmen.

Training, like learning, cannot be comfortable. In a review of W. W. Sawyer's What is Calculus About (in Scientific American, January 1962, page 157) Morris Kline points out that the popularized bird's eye view of mathematics does not lead to a knowledge of mathematics. Similarly, Wright W. Miller's Russians Are People (Dutton, 1961) points out that Russians are accustomed to discomfort. This may be one reason that Russians do not make learning comfortable, while Americans do everything, undertake all kinds of curricular revision, in order to induce comfort in learning.

Unfortunately, learning a subject requires hard work, both in the teacher and in the learner. Difficulties mount even higher with a minority group which does not have perspectives of occupational possibilities made clear to it. Just as the Luddites failed to see the possibilities of occupational mobility in machinery and in industrial training, so Negroes and Puerto Rican children and parents may not be aware of the great occupational possibilities, once they assume the responsibility of training and education.

### Relevant Field Experiences and Responsibilities

1. Visit the real estate departments of three Harlem banks to find out from Harlem bankers what the risks and benefits are for real estate investment in Harlem. Is the financial return greater? Is the risk greater (in comparison with real estate investment in other areas)? How do these financial facts and realities reflect family relationships? How do family instability and financial instability interact?

2. Check the nature of business men's associations in Harlem with respect to integration. What is the role of Kiwanis, Rotary, and Lions clubs on 125 Street?

3. Interview Harlem trade union leadership to determine the levels of training programs instituted by trade unions for Harlem membership.

### Research, References, and Resources:

These and many other references from Singer, et al., in *The History of Technology*, volume II, illustrate how status interacts with technically trained personnel:

1. In Roman mining, "Gradual improvement was largely due to the replacement of slave-labour by skilled artificers, who were still supplemented by condemned criminals." (page 8). In working the English mines, "The Romans, as usual, to a large extent worked the mines in Britain by native labor and methods, supplying overseers and foremen as needed." (*Ibid*. page 9)

2. "At the Athenian quarries all the processes connected with the work where grouped together in charge of a *technites*, who was not a citizen and therefore was largely ignored in contemporary literature. A *technites* was a skilled worker in almost any trade--mason, carpenter, and so forth--although a metal-worker was distinguished by a special title (*chalheus* or *sidereus*)" (*Ibid*, page 25).

3. After the decline of Rome, Saxon miners and metallurgical techniques were almost the sole repository of mining techniques (*Ibid*, page 11): "When the Romans departed, the of stone-cutting fell at once into decay. At the very beginning of the fifth century the Britons sent for help to Rome, and one legion was sent back. 'Even so,' says Bede (673-735), 'the islanders raised the (Antonine) Wall, not as they had been directed, of stone, having no artist capable of such work, but of rods.' Bede relates that St. Benedict of Wearmouth crossed into Gaul *c* 650 and brought back masons to build a church. For it he also imported glaziers, who could not be found in England." (*Ibid*, page 32)

4. "The Romans took over Hellenistic mining and smelting enterprises and enlarged their scale, stimulating subdivision of labor and the rise of mining specialists." (Ibid, page 41)

5. "In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries the craftsman's knowledge was still far in advance of theory, and apart from the few great treatises already mentioned, the writings of purely practical men--mint-masters, locksmiths, jewellers, gun-founders, and the like--give the best insight into the metallurgical equipment and methods of the time." (Ibid, volume 3, page 33)

6. "The spread of printing released a stream of metallurgical knowledge codified in carefully prepared treatises.....Many medieval collections of workshop receipes must have ciruclated among adepts or pupils in mining and metal-working, from which these first printed manuals descend." (Ibid, page 26).

7. "A fine sixteenth-century English account of assaying copper and other base-metal ores in Cumberland has been found recently in the notebook of Daniel Hockstetter, one of the principal German experts who were brought over to work the deposits there." (Ibid, page 63)

## Lecture 7. The Sense of Mobility:

Can blue collar workers be trained for the technical requirements of today? Can a 90 I.Q. be fitted for the age of automation? Some answers emerge from the history of education. In the apprentice training of the medieval and post-medieval period the apprentice could not forever remain an apprentice. He could anticipate some degree of upward employment mobility, in clearly set stages, wherein apprenticeship would be followed by journeyman status, and that, in turn, by the status of master. He knew the direction he could go and he knew that experience, training, and time would combine to bring him to the master's state.

Remarkable things accompanied this awareness of the possibilities of upward mobility. From 1400 to the present day the world has seen unprecented expansions in art, science, commerce, and economic opportunity. When a man had an inner sense of worth and of external opportunities, and prepared himself on the basis of both, he lost the sense of meek and placid acceptance with his appointed station in life, but moved forward along the channels which marked his way. The history of the last few centuries offers millions of examples of poor children who improved themselves and their stations in life.

The Harlem child is beginning to sense this availability of opportunity. Until recently the average Negro boy could anticipate difficulties in employment, no matter how well he prepared himself. These difficulties are rapidly vanishing, perhaps more rapidly than Negro youth realize (see Robert Weaver's comments here), and even more rapidly on the more desirable levels of employment.

Negro youth need have fewer fears about job discrimination and educational quotas than ever before; the reason is simple. American society is short of trained manpower.

A similar situation is described in Rashdall's *Universities of Europe in the Middle Ages* in discussing the reasons for the rise of the medieval universities. The monasteries had served to dilute and disperse education, but an emerging Europe, following the Crusades, required centralization of effort. The emergence of the cathedral schools, in the towns, under the aegis of a local bishop, was an aspect of this centralization. The earliest sanction for these cathedral schools, marked by the visit of Alcuin of York to Charlemagne, simultaneously marked a change in curriculum, and presaged the expansion of educational opportunities--because of the needs of an expanding society--and their localization, chiefly, in urban centers, related to cathedrals, rather than affiliation with rural groups, related to the monasteries.

The growth of the cathedral schools had consequences in the need for students to travel to these urban-related centers, meaning, in turn, that most students were not local residents; they had come from afar, in many cases from distant lands. Friction frequently arose between students and the cathedral town residents, resulting in organizations of students and master's guilds, which did not appreciably diminish the conflict between town and gown.

This reflection of a society emerging from medievalism and beginning to move toward the Renaissance and Humanism could also be seen in the status of the emerging professions. By 1200 the medical schools had emerged in many Italian cities, so that Salerno not only had a medical heritage in anatomy and dissection from Galen, and the knowledge of herbs from Dioscorides, but translations from the Arabic and the works of Avicenna and Averroes. By 1200 the physician was an all-round scientist who enjoyed high status because he had access to training, to a body of knowledge, and to the courts of nobles as well.

If Salerno as a cathedral town was a pioneer in medical education, so Bologna, reflecting social needs, was a pioneer in legal education. The church was involved in centralization of power, to which Gratian and the False Decretals made a legal contribution, because its interest in a coherent spectrum of power made it actively participate in the development of education for canon and civil law. As a result law schools were set up in various universities, but their unanticipated effect was to promote secularization and an increase in the powers of local nobles and princes. In time, lawyers became more and more attached to courts (note the original use of the term) of bishops and of nobles, and the scope of their work and endeavors became wider and wider (See Pollard's Wolsey), so that by the Reformation the original intentions of the church had been undercut in large measure by the very group it had fostered.

Even theological education was considerably affected by the expansion of society. Theological education was available to all who had the necessary ability. A bright boy from the poorer classes could enter the clergy and do so in a variety of ways, via a monastic order, a mendicant order, or via the cathedral schools. Social and economic mobility was available for gifted young men through the clergy. The democracy of the church, in admitting to theological studies all who could qualify was unquestionable.

However, this served to drain off from the economy those from the lower classes who were brightest and who were of outstanding leadership material. We can only surmise how much this postponed the emergence of the later medieval period and of the Renaissance.

In some areas theological education continued as it had always been: study by rote, in an unchanging tradition, as a "school of the service of the lord" (St. Benedict) and by defining study as contemplation. Nevertheless, philosophical disputes began to arise, again reflecting the temper of the times. The work of Aquinas, Abelard and the nominalists, and the rise of the new orders, indicated that history, occupations, mobility, and education, were taking off along new tracks.

Similarly, we today may not be conscious of the small tendencies around us that contribute to tremendous historical forces, that make possible an emergence of minority groups from disbarment, discrimination, and segration.

In Colonial America, Benjamin Franklin's blueprint for the Philadelphia Academy reflected response to new stimulus conditions of an expanding society. Franklin envisaged a school which would break away from the Latin school of his day, and in which, for the first time, English would be taught as a subject and English literature would be included in the curriculum together with classical literature. This curriculum extension was caused by society's need for people who could read and write in the vernacular and who could constitute a public for the dramatists, essayists, and fiction writers. Though a body of English literature had by Franklin's day attained the status of classical literature (see Dean Swift's Battle of the Books), curricular anachronisms would not allow it the dignity of admissibility to scholarly learning. In the same way, new advances in science and technology were refused place in the college curriculum until well into the 19th century.

From Franklin's blueprint grew, quite rapidly the Free Acadamies, and thereafter, the first of the high schools, so that by 1830 the high school system could be seen in its dim beginnings. A rapidly expanding nation needed not only strong backs and willing hands, but, also, minds that could understand an invoice, that could write a business letter, and could enter numbers and calculations into business accounts.

Relevant Field Experiences and Responsibilities:

1. Visit Democratic, Republican, and Liberal Party headquarters in Harlem and find out what proportion of eligible voters participate in elections. How does this proportion compare with turnout in other sections of the city? Interview local political leaders to determine the contribution of church groups, trade union groups, and business men's associations in getting out the vote. Verify your data from census tracts and from Board of Education statistics.

2. Visit the Social Service Department at Harlem Hospital to determine the proportion of unwed mothers admitted to the maternity ward and the average age of mothers who are having their first child. Interview appropriate members of the Social Service staff for information on post-partum care available to mothers and on case work methods in use at Harlem Hospital.

## Research, References, and Resources:

1. For the use of apprentices in industrial processes, and the training of such apprentices in Colonial America, see Esther Forbes Paul Revere and His Times and her novel on the same period, Johnny Tremain.

2. O. Davies Roman Mines in Europe, Clarendon Press, Oxford, 1935.

3. L. F. Salzman English Industries of the Middle Ages, Clarendon Press, Oxford, 1923.

4. W. B. Parsons Engineers and Engineering in the Renaissance, Williams and Wilkins, Baltimore, 1939.

5. B. Gille Les Origines de la Grande Industrie Metallurgique en France, Collection d'histore sociale, no. 2., Edition Domat, Paris, 1947.

6. C. Welch History of the Worshipful Company of Pewterers of the City of London based on their own records, Blades, East and Blades, London, 1902.

7. A. P. Usher History of Mechanical Inventions (new edition) Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass., 1954.

8. S. Lilley Men, Machines and History, Cobbet, London, 1948.

9. Of special interest in connection with training methods is Singer et al History of Technology, volume 3, chapter 5, pages 110-122, "Tradesmen's Tools."

## Lecture 8. The House of Learning

The teaching of techniques and crafts has expanded quantitatively in the last century and a half, but it also shows noteworthy qualitative differences. The man-to-man, point-to-point correspondence of master to apprentice was highly efficient as long as there was no market for more than single replacements, as we can see in the relationship of Sir Humphrey Davy and Michael Faraday. However, when the market opens up and society's need for instruction becomes greater and financially more rewarding for the individual, it becomes necessary to introduce the class, and thus formal instruction, formal observation, use of texts, and some kind of formal examination system, become necessary.

The circumstances and conditions under which education occurs are also affected when production and consumption are greatly changed.

The great need in America today, for trained and educated personnel, of all ages and sexes, promises to become even greater, thereby creating a tremendous opportunity for disadvantaged youth to take its place as full, contributing citizens. The history of the last half-millennium makes this seem almost inevitable.

This inevitability is reflected in the Negro's drive for equality of educational opportunity. Negro communities in the backward South, in relatively prosperous communities like Englewood and South Jamaica, and in Harlem, are pressing for good schooling as much as they are pressing for good housing, and, furthermore, for well-housed schooling. Sometimes this pressure is exerted without realizing that integrated schooling, effective education, good Harlem housing, and well-housed schooling are not necessarily compatible, nor even related, especially when seen from the vantage point of the limited number of tax dollars.

If the tax dollar is limited, should it go for new school buildings or for more teachers? Do good teachers need a new school plant to teach effectively? Or does the money spent on school architecture contribute more to decorative effects than to education?

In brief, do school architects and engineers have the same educational motives and purposes as teachers do?

Note that the great and prestigeful schools in America and England (Groton, Andover, Lawrenceville, Eton, and Harrow, for example) are older than New York school buildings and no one suggests that they be torn down. Old as they are they are still viewed as outstanding educational plants. Indeed, Andover and Harrow students are proud of the age of their buildings. Old private school buildings are preserved and used. Old public school buildings are torn down. One wonders why an educational program to make Harlem students equally proud of their old buildings is not undertaken, as a beginning step in giving Harlem youth a sense of identity and tradition.

Are Harlem youth and Harlem parents unwittingly duped by the publicity of school architects and school engineers as to the relationship between school plant and learning? A relationship exists but it is smaller than the relationship between effective learning and teaching--a far more crucial relationship.

Jewish learning in European yeshivoth occurred in old ramshackle quarters. The great European universities are older than any school in Harlem. School architects and engineers, who must earn a living, capitalize on school overcrowding and ineffective teaching by stating that a new building (which subtracts from the sums available for educational expenditures on teachers, texts, and materials) is the prime hallmark of educational improvement, when, in truth, it is low on the list of educational priorities. The establishment of equality of educational opportunity depends more on the ready availability of well-trained teachers, on texts in ample number, and on instructional materials of good quality, than on bright, shining, and new school buildings.

Any housing is educationally acceptable if it makes provision for the following:

a. The lecture method of teaching. In medieval education this took the form of lectures by single teachers but it had an alternative form in the disputation, in which the professors recited while debating with each other, with the students as audience. This has a modern counterpart in the discussion panel or discussion forum. In such forms of the lecture, readings from authorities are given and ideas are developed by the speaker, generally the teacher. The lecture method involves architectural considerations of space, audibility, and availability of writing surfaces for each student, so that none in the audience need stand.

b. The recitation method, which assumes adequate verbal levels in the student so that response can be given, which derives in turn from adequate supply of materials, storage facilities for materials, and quick accessibility to materials. A substitute for the recitation is the test, or formal examination, involving architectural facilities for group testing or for individual testing, usually oral. The latter requires architectural provision for privacy for both teacher and student.

c. The seminar, which is an extension of individual oral testing, because here a group participates in oral examination. Again, provision for privacy is a prime consideration.

d. The method of the cadaver, the case, and the laboratory, in which the learner tests reality on the closest possible approximation, involving architectural considerations of illumination, equipment and ready movement around the site of educational activity.

e. Interprofessional and intraprofessional relations, involving architectural considerations of office space, handling and clearance of visitors, parents and other persons with responsibility for educational undertakings and transactions.

Therefore, school housing is not the substance of education, but only the reflection of education and educational activity. New school buildings in Harlem rapidly become targets for vandalism unless the Harlem community makes full use of these buildings around the clock and throughout the week and year. The use of the buildings must reflect community needs, so that if a creche is needed for the working mother (as in Israel and the Soviet Union), the school building has facilities for that purpose, with the further intention of providing nursery school and early childhood education facilities, to avoid waste of human resources and to get the tasks of education under way.

For example, if dormitory facilities are attached to colleges and universities, the simple fact that students come from far away is revealed. Students came from far away to attend the University of Athens, the medieval cathedral schools and universities. Dormitory facilities and arrangements had to be provided, with the institution ultimately taking responsibility for providing such facilities. On the other hand, other institutions of learning like the Royal Society and the European learned societies, which had housing of varying magnitudes, sometimes provided by governments and sometimes by private benefaction, had no need to provide dormitory facilities, except at times of meetings. American learned societies, at times of meetings, also provide facilities for housing, or at least act as intermediaries in providing housing. This reveals a different type of contact between institution and constituency.

In Harlem, school buildings must similarly reflect community habits and patterns in order that the community experience social acceptance of its place and the promise of its contributions. If this means dormitory facilities for Harlem children, then school architecture in Harlem should make appropriate provision for this need. The larger consideration here is the fullest social utilization of the educational possibilities of Harlem children, not the current family patterns into which they are born.

## Relevant Field Experiences and Responsibilities:

1. Visit a half dozen Harlem schools and determine the time at which the school gates are closed. Interview responsible personnel to find out what after-school programs and activities are available. Investigate the availability of adult education programs and the extent of participation in them.

2. Visit Department of Welfare offices in Harlem to determine the circumstances under which grants are made to the various classifications of families: elderly indigents, large family units, dependent children, etc. What is the degree of turnover among recipients? Among Department of Welfare personnel (social investigators)? What are the chief reasons for turnover in both groups?

## Research, References, and Resources:

1. United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare, School Sites: Selection, Development and Utilization, Special Publication 7, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 1958.

2. American Association of School Administrators, Planning America's School Buildings, 1960, AASA, 1201-16 Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

3. John H. Herrick, Ralph D. McLeary, Wilfred F. Clapp, Walter F. Bogner, From School Program to School Plant, Henry Holt, 1956.

## Lecture 9. Educational Pluralism:

Let us now focus more closely on the need for Harlem housing and how this relates to the demand for integrated schools. As Harlem housing improves, and as Harlem becomes less the slum, possibilities for the integrated school become more remote. As Harlem becomes more desirable to remain in rather than depart from, fewer Negroes will move elsewhere. This is a troublesome matter to those Negro parents who want to see their children grow up with a greater understanding of, and familiarity with, other groups.

The demand for integrated schooling arises most sharply from those Negro parents with the deepest dedication to education and with the deepest social responsibility. Because they are upwardly mobile parents, they identify themselves with Negro middle class values, and are therefore in a group which is caught between the white middle class and the Negro proletariat.

Attendance at an integrated school in a predominantly white neighborhood requires time in a school bus and transportation away from the Negro child's residential neighborhood. Assuming that group understanding will in this way be enhanced, will not time and energy devoted to studies be diminished? Does group understanding or does study take precedence? Of course, this question is meaningless until the Negro child has as many local, neighborhood and community study opportunities as the white child. At present he does not. His teachers are less experienced, his texts and materials are in shorter supply, and his library facilities for study are clearly inferior. Can we compensate for these shortcomings by putting the child on a bus, or would it be preferable to bring in more and better teachers, and more texts and materials? If we do the latter, do we only further cut off the Negro child from the wider American scene?

Even worse, do we cut off America from the contributions of the best segments of Negro life?

To complicate matters, Negro life shows divisive influences, religious, political, and socio-economic, so that E. Franklin Frazier's Black Bourgeoisie illustrates some serious splits among Negro groups, reminiscent of splits among German, Eastern European, and Sephardic Jews. Thus, many responsible Negro parents oppose busing their children to integrated schools, because of the considerations enumerated above.

Ultimately, we must arrange the circumstances of education so as to maximize the contributions that all groups can make to American life, which leads us to the historical contrast in America between pluralism and integration, and the opposition between America as melting-pot or America as variety. Until fairly recently, the melting-pot concept dominated American thinking, but the melting-pot has itself been melted down, to be replaced by the view that minority groups best contribute to American life by retaining their habits and customs, rather than by fleeing from them.

America is not an indiscriminate blob of homogeneous texture, nor even a summation of unrelated mosaics. Rather it is an interacting pattern of social values, social structures, and social histories. However this requires that the minority group enrich its own culture in order to enrich the cultural ambiance in American life. In the Negro case this might mean an enrichment of Harlem culture rather than flight from it. Is it possible that by increasing Harlem's educational and cultural resources American society becomes more available and permeable to Negro participation?

Much depends on how Negro groups implement their aspirations, but even more depends on the state of acceptance in the majority society. For example, Greek learning was imported into Italy on two separate occasions. On the first occasion, after the defeat of the Ptolemaic and Seleucid inheritors of Alexander's empire. Greek men of learning were brought to Rome, as slaves, to act as tutors to Roman youth. They were held in contempt, because they were perceived as slaves and as inferiors, rather than as learned men. On the second occasion, during the latter half of the fifteenth century, following the capture of Constantinople by the Turks in 1453, Greek men of learning again came to Italy, but this time were not greeted with contempt as refugees, but with admiration because they could feed the growing hunger of the Renaissance and Humanism. In the first instance, the governing society greeted the Greeks with contempt; in the second instance - with admiration.

Similarly, Jewish learning and scholarship, have been accepted or rejected by the majority society largely because of differences in the majority societies in the midst of which Jews have found themselves. Jewish culture, though itself not homogeneous, was much more coherent and self-consistent in its values than such different societies as the seventeenth century Dutch or seventeenth century Russian. Therefore, no matter how rich or vital American Negro culture becomes, it must ultimately depend on the hospitality and acceptance with which it is received by the culture of the American majority. Seventeenth century Dutch society was far more accepting of Jewish values and Jewish culture than seventeenth century Russian society. Similarly, contemporary American culture is far more accepting of Negro values and contributions than it has ever been, partly for historic reasons of guilt and partly for the current insatiable requirement in American society for trained and skilled manpower. The higher the degree of skill and training in the Negro, the less he need feel concern about job discrimination--certainly a novelty in American Negro life.

Hence the burden of responsibility for skill and training is placed upon the Negro to a greater extent than ever before.

Relevant Field Experiences and Responsibilities:

1. Visit a representative group of Harlem churches--Revivalist, Catholic, Episcopalian, Baptist, Presbyterian--to determine the involvement and commitment of Harlem youth to church and Sunday School activity. How do the various denominations work with youth? What are their youth programs? Their social action programs? To what extent do the various denominations utilize pastoral psychology? What school-church programs are carried on?

2. Among the competing Harlem groups are the N.A.A.C.P., the Congress of Racial Equality (CORE), and the Black Muslims. These represent different approaches to the solution of Negro problems and different intensities of anti-white feeling. Interview responsible personnel affiliated with each of these groups to determine their programs on (a) school integration (b) industrial training for automation (c) influencing public opinion (d) gaining new members.

Research, References, and Resources:

1. Harold R. Isaacs "Integration and The Negro Mood," Commentary, December 1962, page 487.

2. Gunnar Myrdal An American Dilemma, Harper and Brothers, 1944.

3. E. Franklin Frazier Black Bourgeoisie,

## Lecture 10. The Making of a Tradition:

The parades on many American main streets on St.Patrick's Day, Baron Steuben Day, Puerto Rican Day, Greek-American Day, or Polish-American Day, illustrate the reality of cultural pluralism. Pluralism involves a responsibility in the minority group to develop its cultural resources as far as possible and, in turn, to partake as fully as possible of the general cultural ambiance.

Pluralism, historically, is more related to urban needs and patterns than is nationalism--the latter being a more recent historical phenomenon. Since cities antedate nationalism, pluralism has a more venerable urban history than does nationalism, which emerged in history only a few hundred years ago. The sense of country, or nation, is a new thing, and is to be contrasted to antecedents in the sense of tribe, or the sense of kingdom, or of empire.

The history of cities is in great measure the history of cultural pluralism. (See Lewis Mumford, The City in History.) Athens, Alexandria, Jerusalem, Rome and Istanbul show the forces of cultural pluralism. As America has become urban, it has become more hospitable to pluralism.

Pluralism, however, is not separatism, or Black Muslimism, but is the opportunity to partake and contribute richly on two fronts, thereby further requiring that traditions of merit and interest be tossed into the stew--rather than the melting pot--so that all may dine and profit.

Does the Negro past offer such a tradition? Only if the Negro thinks so, because nobody else's agreement is required. Documentation does not constitute a tradition, it merely rationalizes traditionalism. The Negro past requires the liberating effect of tradition, not the encumbrance of traditionalism. Traditionalism emerges from the existence of records, rather than from noble actions. The records need not include merit, saintliness, or accomplishments. They can--as in British, Italian, or Hebrew records--include pirates, murderers, embezzlers, poisoners, and misfits. This is the stuff ancestors are frequently made of.

Far more important, tradition is transferable from one group to another. Scandinavians and Japanese can share and participate in the Renaissance Italian art tradition; Americans and British in Hindu tradition; and Christians and Moslems in Jewish tradition, even though they had not the slightest thing to do with their origins. Thus Europeans share in Biblical traditions, even though the people of the Old Testament never saw a European in all their lives. Jesus, very probably, never saw a Bavarian, Pole, or Spaniard, although these are members of contemporary groups in which the tradition--and sometimes traditionalism--of Christianity is very strong.

Negroes are not know to have been present at Plymouth Rock in 1620 or Runymedein 1215. Their presence or absence means less in building sound traditions in the American Negro than does his studying about the Pilgrims and about the Magna Carta. The ancestors of most white Americans and Englishmen were also not at Plymouth Rock or at Runymede. The Sicilian peasant is less a participant in the tradition of Quattrocento Italian art than the Japanese student haunting European museums and galleries. One gains a tradition and shares in it by working at the business, but the business deals chiefly with the future and not the past.

Were it not so the values of tradition would be chiefly in antiquarianism, and not, as they are indeed, in a dynamic that is oriented toward the future.

Thus Soviet education, despite its radical break with Czarist politics and economics, makes every effort to maintain continuity with the Russian past and with Russian culture, whether in ballet or in pedagogy. This is done to a point that is almost laughable when Communist historians put in claims for Czarist responsibility and priority in major inventions and discoveries that the remainder of the world has always supposed originated elsewhere. Clearly, in order to build an untraditional state and an economy without precedent, effective connections with tradition are so vital that they are fabricated when needed.

Salient in Negro experience is economic brutality of man against man, in the form of slavery, expropriation, and intimidation. This tradition persists through classical civilization, the medieval period of feudalism, and modern capitalism. Economic frutality, is as possible under capitalism in modern America as it was in the historic past. Yet these possibilities are exercised less in contemporary Western European states, or in the United States, than at any other time in history. Secretary of Labor Wirtz has said, "Capitalism means, today, economic democracy, and the essential characteristic of democracy is voluntary respect for someone else's interests." (New York Times, August 31, 1962).

If, therefore, nothing in capitalism prevents economic brutality, what has reduced it to the vanishing point in contemporary American society? Nothing either tangible or concrete, except what is in the minds and hearts of men. The residues of economic brutality are not built into capitalism but into the mind and heart.

Education for Negro youth and for deprived youth generally must keep this in mind: that so impalpable a matter as attitude dominates the seemingly objective economic relations of capitalism. This insight dominates the work of Katona at the Survey Research Center at the University of Michigan and is used by government and industrial agencies in predicting economic developments. Experiences contribute to attitudes (which, in turn, contribute to economic relationships), but even more contributary is the education Americans get and Western Europeans are beginning to get. Such is the Negro future in which Negro tradition must be imbedded.

In this Negro future unions battle with management and groups jockey for economic advantage, as when tax burdens are evaded by corporations in order to pass on a greater burden to individuals, particularly wage-earners. The threat-and-promise of automation finds labor more concerned and harassed than management, but, seen in its entirety, the possibilities for economic brutality, as implicit in capitalism as in any other form of economic relationship that has ever existed, have not been exercised in the post World War II years which reflect a greater sense of social responsibility in labor and in management than ever before in history.

We have American education to thank for this, especially that aspect of education that promises mobility in job and status to those who profit by education. Like one of the national parks, American education, whatever its regional and ideological differences, is there, available to anybody who wants his share of it. It may be in the hands of the local political leaders; it may be dominated by propertied (or other) groups; it may be poor in quality; but any child in America (even in Mississippi) can get an education right through the university level, without any investment except work, willingness, and ability. Unfortunately, where these are absent, educational opportunities are not sought; many Americans do not visit the national parks, even though they are available, because what is available is not always accessible.

Educational opportunities may be similarly available without being accessible. Inaccessibility may not only be geographical, but also psychological, and may arise from inner attitude, family and community values, or contending and more immediate rewards. Tradition gone sour or tradition misdirected can render available educational opportunity inaccessible.

Another emotional impediment to advancement is contempt for the educational opportunity that is there for the taking, but this again is a derivative of group traditions that may be anachronistic. Generally, equality of educational opportunity, though not reacted to identically by different group traditions, is a common and shared phenomenon in American life--though not a common and shared experience.

One major exception faces us and that is the situation of the American Negro. Educational opportunity, though theoretically equal for all, is not identically shared by all. Educational opportunity is neither equal nor identical for Negroes in America. One reason lies in the anti-Negro discrimination and bigotry so observable in American life; but another reason emerges from Negro life and Negro tradition.

In New York City, for example, Negroes do not occupy places in colleges in proportion to their number. In New York City, any Negro youth determined to get college training, and with the ability to profit by it, can get it. This is true of Italian, Irish, Polish and Jewish youth. Home and community values--tradition, in short--contribute to the under-representation of Negroes and other ethnic and national groups. At a time of growing social need for trained and knowledgeable manpower some citizens are reluctant to sharpen and improve their talents because family and community values scoff at education.

Professor P. M. S. Blackett, in an article in the New York Times of August 31, 1962, points to a parallel situation between the "have" and "have not" countries, where the gap in wealth between the two is not only big, but is getting progressively bigger. Blackett's opinion is that the poor countries need three things urgently: money, people to instruct them, and the will to get rid of social inhibitions and bad vested interests and traditions. Similarly, in Negro life, the tradition of economic brutality must be reconciled with a future of economic opportunity and educational equality.

Relevant Field Experiences and Responsibilities:

1. Criminology classifies crimes two ways: into crimes against persons, and crimes against property. Interview responsible personnel in the New York courts and at the District Attorney's office to determine if the relationship between these two is the same in Harlem as in non-Harlem communities. Determine the relationship between the involvement of Negroes in civil and criminal cases.

2. Interview responsible personnel at the B'nai B'rith Anti-Defamation League to determine the extent of job discrimination on unskilled levels and on skilled levels. Determine the extent of such discrimination for secretaries, clerks, chemists, bookkeepers, sales personnel, and research personnel.

Research, References and Resources:

1. James Baldwin, Notes of a Native Son, Beacon Press.

2. Stewart G. Cole and Mildred Wiese Cole, Minorities and the American Promise, Harper and Brothers, 1954.

3. Everett C. Hughes, "Ethnic Relations in Industry and Society," in Man, Work, and Society, ed. Sigmund Nosow and William H. Form, Basic Books, 1962.

4. Robert Weaver, The Negro Ghetto, Harcourt Brace, 1948.

## B. A Project Beacon Oriented Course in Educational Psychology and Human Development*

(for pre-service students)

### Lecture 1. Psychological Substrates in the Classroom

Behavior is neither haphazard nor accidental, and emerges from hidden but nonetheless regular circumstances. Further, behavior is patterned, either in configurations and gestalts, or in sequences. Therefore, behavior in the classroom is both causal and patterned. In declaring that behavior is causal and patterned, psychology makes the same assertions as science does about any field of scientific inquiry, without, however, guaranteeing that the ultimate causes and patterns are discoverable. The basic thesis of science is that we live in a rationally ordered universe--science cannot proceed under any other assumption. Psychology, similarly, states that behavior is ordered and rationally explicable even when irrational, without assuming that the ultimate bases of behavior are determinable.

Were classroom teachers to accept this and teach accordingly, their difficulties would in great measure disappear. This is the governing reason for studying educational psychology and child development.

Why, for example, should the teacher of high school seniors learn the growth patterns of the foetus, the neonate, and the infant? We are not only our current age but every preceding year we have lived through. The tantrum of a twelve-year-old is called regressive because some earlier age pattern is dominating the behavior of the moment. The teacher who knows this, and who knows the earlier age pattern, is far along in handling the child, particularly if the teacher knows of and is careful about similarly regressive tendencies in himself. Foetal, neonatal, infantile, and toddler behavior patterns are of direct relevance to the high school teacher attempting to motivate a class of seniors oriented toward graduation, work, or college entrance, and the relevance is even clearer with the teacher of younger age levels.

When teachers fail to see this relevance, clear though it is to psychologists, psychoanalysts, physicians, and kindergarten teachers, the stress of classroom relationships may account for their failure, or reluctance, to explain current behavior in terms of former behavior. Such stress in the teacher is regressive too.

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* This outline is currently undergoing extensive reformulation and expansion.

For example, physicians in the general practice of medicine report that at least forty percent of the symptoms they see are psychosomatic and psychogenic, where the external symptom, like an iceberg one-eighth showing, is less massive than the substrate. The physician not only looks at the visible symptom but simultaneously at the invisible substrate. Similarly, educational psychology deals with behavioral substrates in the classroom, and hence cannot be divorced from human development, beginning with the foetus.

Growth is not only away from, but also toward, and has hormic, teleological qualities, so that educational psychology must deal with outcomes, as well as with causes.

## Questions for Discussion:*

1. What is the Crucial Experiment? What does it mean to psychologists? How does it compel the psychologist to seek resources from other disciplines? Does it reflect success in ordering data, or failure?

2. Does the absence of the crucial experiment weaken the position of the educational psychologist in a school setting (or the clinical psychologist in the hospital team), or does it make him the more effective watchdog? Does this in turn open the boundaries of psychology to other disciplines, or does it close the door to intervention from other disciplines?

3. If behavior is not fully explicable, must we assume the presence of underlying causes? Can we study human development without postulating a basic reasonableness and process?

## Lecture 2. Psychological Growth and Specialization:

The prospective Project Beacon candidate will want to relate educational psychology and human development to the headaches he has heard about and anticipates in the classroom. He may see the relationship as attenuated and remote, but does he simultaneously see within himself an obsessive regressiveness that must have consequences for teacher-pupil relationships? Teacher self-study is not separable from child study in educational psychology.

Here are some considerations which at first glance seem remote, but which have considerable pertinence to classroom matters:

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* Extensive field visits to Beacon schools, nurseries, day care centers, clinics, and community agencies for observation and orientation are planned in conjunction

Is the foetus a self-contained entity, impervious and impermeable to external stimuli, or it accessible to these stimuli? Is the emotional state of the mother reflected in an emotional life in the unborn child? If the physical state of the mother is reflected in the physical state of the unborn child, is her psychological state similarly reflected? If so, would the foetal environment of an anxious, deprived Negro mother, offer the same nutriment as that of a middle-class, unharried white mother?

In transplant experiments the biologist takes a cell from that region in the frog embryo from which the eye will later develop and places it in the region from which the leg will develop. Simultaneously he takes a cell from which the leg will develop and places it in the region from which the eye will develop. Up to a certain point in development, the transplant is successful and the former eye cell conforms to its new context, rather than to its inner specificity, and develops as a leg, just as the original leg cell conforms to its new environment and develops as an eye. Hence, up to this developmental point, successful transplant implies interchangeability of parts. However, after a certain developmental point, transplant is no longer successful, thereby implying other considerations about maturation and irreversibility in biological process.

But maturation and irreversibility also are involved in educational processes, as the work of Rene Spitz, John Bowlby, Anna Freud, and Dorothy Burlingame show, and Samuel Pinneau's disagreement with their findings only proves the relevance of these concepts in the workaday classroom.

Davenport Hooker's studies of body movement in aborted and prematurely delivered foetuses indicated growing specificity of response, and patterned specificity of response that increased with increasing age, so that random, diffuse movements gave way to pattern and specificity of body movement. This is not only related to Hebb's findings about cell assembly in neural firing, but also is related to stereotyping of response, response-modes, and to frequent confusion in classroom learning of the ough, ow, and ew morphemes.

Differentiation in the embryo illustrates the transactions between the inner environment and the outer one, by way of ionic equilibria and interchange, so that biochemistry illuminates the give-and-take of stimulus and response, isomorphic reflections, and the way that function relates to specialization.

However important these questions may be to the biologist and to the developmental psychologist, the Project Beacon candidate wants to know: "What is their relationship to my concerns for teaching multiplication and spelling, or the causes of the Civil War, or Shelley's Ozymandias? What has this got to do with me?"

We answer that the pupil in the classroom has had many complicated experiences long before entering the classroom, or ever hearing of multiplication, or the Civil War, or Ozymandias. His inner growth needs, from the earliest split-second of individuality, are prior and dominating. His need for maintaining intactness of his physical and psychological self may conflict with the teacher's purposes and with the syllabus.

Furthermore, these growth needs determine how the pupil will learn the subject matter the teacher will teach. If embryology tells us that the undifferentiated frog cell can remain where it is and develop into an eye, or undergo transplant and become a limb, this also tells us that the Negro child from the South, coming into a Northern urban school, and bearing an I. Q. of 80, can either sit there unchanged, or can move up to higher levels of intelligence, depending on how the transplant takes, or on how old the child is at the time of transplant. Klineberg's studies on the the increase in I. Q. in Negro children migrating to the north deal with this.

For the Negro child, the success of migration North to a new educational situation depends on the age of the child, but also on his development in hate, hopelessness, and defiance. Bowlby's studies on adopted children and the irreversibility in emotive development after the eighth or ninth month, like Harlow's studies on the monkey cloth-mother, are of direct relevance to the classroom teacher concerned with communication of curricular matters to the pupil.

Questions for Discussion:

1. If a multitude of causes operate in behavior, so that we do not always know the circumstances of their operation, or the manner of their contrapuntal interaction, how can the investigator avoid paralysis, but, instead, gain breadth from the multiplication of causes that lead to confused effects?

2. What are the problems in psychology that are insoluble? What are the parallels in psychology to the indeterminacy principle in physics? Conversely, what does the psychologist do when answers are available, as in the causes of juvenile delinquency and with the gifted who do not fulfill their educational possibilities? How should the psychologist seek implementation of policy formulations when the findings are in and seem conclusive?

## Lecture 3. Reversibility and Irreversibility in Psychological Process:

A striking example of irreversibility in physiology comes at the moment of birth and the birth cry, which, to physicians, is a signal that the child is on the prowl for its own oxygen supply. Medical texts state the need for oxygen is immediate and cannot be postponed even for a quarter-minute because permanent and irreversible damage can be caused to brain cells if oxygen is not supplied at once.

In most cases, oxygen arrives opportunely and irreversible damage is avoided. Some years later, social, family, and community irreversibility walk into the classroom, disguised as a pupil who has been breathing normally since his birth cry. The concept of irreversibility must become a part of the teacher; he must live with it and adjust his teaching to it. From oxygen deprivation he sees parallels in language development, since a foreign language is learned best before puberty and is much less efficiently learned thereafter--a matter that must enter curriculum considerations as much as do audio-lingual wiring provisions. Similarly, the dramatic imprinting experiments on barn fowl, in which the newly hatched chick follows the first moving object it sees-- man, woman, child, experimenter-and thereafter ignores the mother hen that gave it life, again illustrate the irreversibility of certain processes. (Moltz, et al).

More obviously operative in the classroom are the findings on marasmus, or apathy, of Anna Freud and Dorothy Burlingame (with the children of wartime England, separated from their parents and sent to foster homes during the London Blitz), and of John Bowlby's Unesco reports on neonates and infants raised in institutional, rather than family, settings, and the lifelong consequences in absence of emotionalty, feeling, and affective tonality. Of course, Dr. Samuel Pinneau has disputed some of these findings, but the dispute is on the balance between irreversibility and reversibility and therefore of immediate interest to the teacher who must cope with this matter every day in the classroom.

The teacher may still be dubious. Then we must point out the effectiveness or ineffectiveness with which the teacher can or cannot modify behavior brought into the classroom from home, family, and neighborhood. Where patterns are irreversible, the teacher can do nothing, no matter how valiant the effort.

Education must beat back the boundaries of the irreversible, or else surround them and neutralize their noxious effects as far as possible.

## Questions for Discussion:

1. The area of Child Development is divided into language development, moral development, social development, physical development, and intellectual development. Numerous studies in these areas not only push back the areas of darkness, but, unfortunately, yield contradictory results. If so, how can you establish a feeling of competence with them and confidence in them? How can contradictions in research broaden the perspectives of the teacher and give him greater generosity in understanding people and children? Expecially since the teacher needs these feelings to teach successfully and with assurance?

2. Heredity, environment, race relations, marriage relations, gang life, and minority status have been controlled by psychologists in studying the causes of behavior. They find, for example, that Negro children, as they grow older, prefer white dolls to Negro dolls, and that mature Negro males prefer white pin-ups. Discuss in view of irreversibility and group conditioning.

## Lecture 4. Readiness and Maturation:

In its very nature, education inevitably and necessarily assumes reversibility of behavior. Learning would be impossible were behavior neither reversible nor modifiable and every teacher must face the classroom with the assumption that learning can take place that day and that the child on having left the classroom will have learned, will have been changed, and will have undergone behavioral modifications.

This assumption is often sorely tried, not only because prior environmental conditions set up impediments to learning but because certain inner mechanisms are resistant to change, and hence to learning. These inner mechanisms operate subtly and are not too easy to discern.

Thus the Rankian theory of birth trauma, and the Freudian theory of the latency period, on which evidence is hard to come by, claim to have connections with the teacher's day-to-day work. Rank tells us that human beings are not easily moved, or motivated, because of a deep residuum within us that would rather not be stirred, that would prefer not to learn, so that learning and growth are always in conflict with this Nirvana-like antecedent state. See Tennyson's Lotos Eaters for a literary parallel.

Freud points to a cognate tendency in his Eros-Thanatos struggle, in which a death wish immobilizes the energy, or libido, that can be available for learning. On the other hand, the Freudian latency period is illustrative of motivation and readiness, so that reading readiness, school readiness, and the onset of the latency period seem to coincide chronologically. In the same way the termination of latency coincides with the onset of puberty and many of the educational difficulties in the junior high school years. The teacher should be aware of the possible relationship between latency and curriculum, and, therefore, latency and school organization.

In brief, development proceeds by stages of maturation. These stages are uniform for all children, although the rates at which the different stages are reached, traversed, and left behind vary for different children. Readiness for walking, speaking, reading and bisexual interest is not achieved at the same chronological age, because the tempo of readiness varies by years.

Although reversibility-irreversibility, maturation, and other concepts related to growth patterns reveal the impediments to desirable social, emotional, physical, and intellectual development, they also tell us that growth patterns and development may destroy perceptions originally valuable, replacing them by error. Some learning is bad, as Wordsworth showed in Ode on Intimations of Immortality, and as Piaget shows in his research on the child's sense of the physical universe. Growth may cause us to lose capacities and qualities we once had, so that the child's original vision, in some areas truer than the adult's, may become progressively more susceptible to social bias in the course of growth.

Therefore, the qualities that a pupil brings into a classroom may require setting aright to a former state, rather than re-arrangement into a new, heretofore inexperienced condition. The effect on teaching procedures is obvious. An awakening of reminiscence, of Herbart's apperceptive mass, of appropriate memories, becomes essential in presenting the new and fresh. The teacher must learn to ask questions, rather than to make statements, and to imbed the unknown into the experienced, even if it has become the forgotten.

A major component of the drop-out problem is the group value-system, in which an otherwise bright adolescent, quite capable of profiting by a college experience, is deterred by family, neighborhood, or community orientations from seeking additional education. But in contrast to this example, where the immediate group context determines values, is the example of value and symbol determination by a remote group, usually the dominant majority group, as in the examples noted above, where esthetic values and judgments of beauty and attractiveness are set by others. The effort to combat white standards of beauty and esthetics has led Negro intellectuals to Negritude, or the slogan Black is beautiful.

Psychological studies of esthetic "judgments" prove that these are not absolute, but are strongly influenced by halo effects, emerging chiefly from group values, which, as we have just seen, can exercise their influence when close at hand or when at a distance. But these very group values can help to re-establish and strengthen individual judgments, as Asch's studies on line-length judgments and Sherif's studies on group conflict in a summer camp situation both indicate. Hence the greatest help to the Negro child, expropriated from his educational possibilities, comes from the proper organization in the Negro group, if these are supportive.

## Questions for Discussion:

1. If, in a troublesome Harlem junior high school where narcotics are surreptitiously peddled, a policeman is assigned, and knifings occur, you interpret these as aspects of despair rather than defiance, and insults thrown at you as signs that you are needed and not rejected, will your students do better or worse? Will they become tranquil or more uncontrollable? Do your colleagues agree?

2. Do I. Q. records of Harlem elementary school students show constancy, improvement, or decline as these students move on to junior high school? How does this compare with I. Q. records in non-Harlem schools? How are these findings to be interpreted? Does constancy in I. Q. argue for the primacy of heredity or of environment? What of change in I. Q.? (Compare N. Weyl and Otto Klineberg on Negro I. Q.)

## Lecture 5. The Teacher as Learner:

You are, at this moment, your present age and every age you have ever been, simultaneously, else the psychological phenomenon known as regression would be inexplicable. The well known Gesell developmental time-tables deal with just a few levels of age-related behavior. These operate in both pupil and in teacher.

As an example, the teacher walks into the classroom. Two boys in back of the room look at the teacher and start laughing. What is the teacher's reaction? As often as not, the teacher will assume that the boys are laughing at him, and will react accordingly. Is the assumption justified? Is it not equally possible that the boys are laughing at something that happened the last period? Studies on this matter are almost impossible to conduct, but it is problematical whether pupils or teachers have more tantrums in class.

A teacher in a frenzy, like a student in the throes of misbehavior, is behaving regressively, at some earlier age level. We expect the six-year-old to behave "that way", but, when a sixteen-year-old does, the theoretical concept of regression becomes visible. The beginning teacher should take the Gesell schedule seriously because he can see himself mirrored in it and because, some layers down, he too still behaves "that way"-- and thereby is not differentiable from his students.

The infant who cries at a strange face one day becomes a teacher who deals with an unfamiliar racial or ethnic group, and the crying, though submerged, may still be there. The child who is apprehensive about what the teacher will say one day becomes a teacher who is apprehensive about the conduct of his class. The tears and the apprehensions are, in part, both regressive.

Therefore, we must correct a major shortcoming in the usual teaching of educational psychology and child development--the absence of self-understanding. Too often--and too bad--the prospective teacher studies the child, not himself, when he should be constantly aware that latency, birth trauma, reversibility-irreversibility, biological and sociological transplant, are topics pertaining to him and not only to the classes he will teach. As he particularizes from these seemingly general considerations to himself and his characteristics, he will develop understanding of himself, and thereby develop understanding of his classes. Unless the prospective teacher does so, educational psychology can become an obstruction to understanding instead of a means to it, in the same way that learning can become degraded to pedantry, or a neurotic treats his neurosis by reading books about his symptoms. Intellectualizing is not the same as learning; nor is it the same as teaching.

For this reason, perhaps, recitation insureslearning because it requires overt acting out of learned material, and thereby goes beyond mere internalization of it. Similarly, through such concepts as psychological energy, or Freudian libido, or Gardner Murphy's canalization we come to realize that learning and behavioral change occur because they are channeled toward goals and overt outcomes. The teacher, in learning educational psychology, is putting not only the student under a microscope, but himself too.

## Questions for Discussion:

1. The psychologist is often distrusted. Physicians object to him as psychotherapist, though not as psychometrician. Can the psychometrician become the psychomeretrician? Under what circumstances? Sometimes psychologists can say stupid things just as other people can. (See Advertising Age, editorial "Wonderful World of Psychology", September 18, 1961). What kind of care should psychologists exert in the area of policy formulation or decision making in education? What can professional groups in psychology do about their "misguided" or venal members?

2. The clinical psychologist, social psychologist, and educational psychologist have long had an interest in the problems of deprived communities--not so the experimental psychologist. Is the experimental psychologist missing a bet? Can the experimental psychologist similarly find research possibilities in these communities? For example, Benton Underwood's extensive experiments on verbal learning were conducted on a midwest population; would the findings be the same if replicated in Harlem? Would the semantic differential studies of Osgood, Suci, and Tannenbaum yield similar results in a Harlem school population? Would administration of LSD and other hallucinogenic drugs show the same consequences in a population of Harlem Hospital patients as in Harlem student volunteers? Would Estes' probability learning statistics show similar means and variances with a Bedford-Stuyvesant group? Does Critical Flicker Fusion work with Negroes as with whites?

## Lecture 6. Stimulus Ingestion and Exploration:

Just as he must have food, man must have stimulation. We are stimuli-ingesting creatures as much as we are food-ingesting creatures. The research on human engineering going forward in astronautics and man-in-space reveals that the absence of sights and sounds may have deleterious effects on behavior and on the integrity and wholeness of the psyche. Deprivation of stimulation has adverse outcomes in the infant.

Conversely, man must behave, act, explore, and stretch out his receptors to the stimuli about him, just as the baby in the crib stretches, twists, flexes muscles, and is continuously restless. Interestingly, studies on swaddling indicate that the swaddled infant is more composed and more quiet than the naked infant, indicating a reciprocal relationship between the impingement of stimulation and activity.

Nothing illustrates this more effectively than language development. If we study how the child learns to speak, we see that the beginning of speech is accompanied by stretching and probing of the possibilities of the vocal organs. The child lallates, babbles, utters sounds, irrespective of the presence or absence of others, in an exploration of the possibilities of sound that is an inner parallel to the child's irrepressible exploration and assessment of the outer world. The infant examines its fingers and toes. It simultaneously examines and listens to the sounds it makes.

The infant has a wider repertoire of sounds than it will have in maturity, from the Hottentot click to the Scotsman's burr, to which it listens and from which, in the next stage of speech, it will select those sounds most productive of desired social circumstances. For, in this next stage, socialization sets in. The child has a repertoire from which it can repeat. Its parents talk and coo to it, in imitation of the child's sounds. But the child not only listens; it also responds with sounds and gurgles of its own. Then, one historic day, it utters a sound which has some similarity to the language its parents have been directing at it and jubilation shakes the house. The mother runs to the telephone to tell grandma that baby has said "Mama," or "Dada," or "Smithsonian Institute," with perfect clarity and articulation.

The baby, meanwhile, comes to realize that a sound it made has been rewarded with social approval. That sound is thereby reinforced and becomes a part of its permanent repertoire. Time passes and additional sounds are reinforced, but others, like the Hottentot click, are not, and are permanently lost, for lack of reinforcement and reward.

Why, then, cannot the same child learn a second language as readily as it learns the first? Here matters of interference between response-modes arise. If these are reduced, second language learning is a possibility. For example, if the father addresses the child in English and the mother does so in French, and this pattern is consistently maintained, interference is reduced and second language learning is a possibility in bilingual households.

Some years later the child is sitting in a geometry class presided over by a teacher who has been taking an in-service course in which these matters are being discussed. The teacher is disgruntled because she cannot see how learning about reinforcement and reward in infant language development will help her teach Euclid. The child who once learned speech and thereafter went on to the complexities of reading and writing is sent to the board by the disgruntled teacher and fouls up the demonstration. The teacher punishes the child with a "Wrong!" and the child skulks back to his seat. No reward. No reinforcement. No hits. No runs. All errors.

Questions for Discussion:

1. Is the slow learner indifferent to a reading improvement program or unable to conceptualize his need for it?

2. Your educational psychology text tries to give you an understanding of the child and the adolescent. To what extent has it been successful in giving you an understanding of yourself? Is this a legitimate task of a text in educational psychology? Is it legitimate to rate texts in educational psychology in order of merit by this criterion?

3. Do Negro students present more or fewer levels of experience than do non-Negro students? Is it therefore necessary to use many approaches or few, in presenting material to them?

## Lecture 7. Rewards and Punishments:

In the last lecture we saw a child being punished for not performing well. Why did it fail to perform well? Euclid is far simpler and far less complicated than learning to speak, write, and read. Why do most human beings learn the vastly more complex, and balk at learning the far more simple? Are there rewards and punishments in language learning that might well accompany Euclid-learning?

If rewards and punishments are operating, we must define what constitutes a reward to one pupil but not to another, and a punishment to one pupil but not to another. Rewards and punishments are not the same thing from one individual to another because of their antecedents and backgrounds. One pupil may skulk back to his seat at the teacher's "Wrong!" but another may smirk and clown and feel that he has gained a victory where it counts most, in the eyes of his gang. The "Wrong!" to him constitutes a reward, not a punishment. Why?

Any answer here brings us to matters seemingly far afield from the classroom, to epistemology, philosophy, and the rats in a maze in some psychological laboratory. The first two matters are dealt with in other courses. Here let us concern ourselves with the rat in the maze that throws some unexpected light on the pupil in the classroom.

This rat may be a Miller-rat, a Hull-rat, or a Skinner-rat. The rat is not uniformly interpreted by the various schools of psychology, even when the measurement of the rat's behavior is unarguable. As brief examples, with special reference to the light they throw on classroom behavior, we can look at Miller's harnessed rats in approach-avoidance, Hull's free-running rats in goal gradients, and Skinner's imprisoned lever-pressing rats.

1. Miller's conflicted rats inform the classroom teacher that immobility is an end-result, a consequence, an outcome of rewards and punishments in opposition. The lazy child is likely to be conflicted, rather than unwilling to invest energy in the business of education. What seems like disinterest in learning is more probably paralysis, emerging as a consequence of unresolved inner strife. The teacher who retorts, "He doesn't show any signs of strife---or life. He seems completely placid and satisfied and just unwilling to try," should look at Miller's rats, frozen in the middle of a maze between reward and punishment, between food and shock, giving a rat's version of immobility, while hunger and fear, attraction and repulsion, wage war, unseen, below the pelt.

2. Or note Hull's rats placed at the entrance to a maze, food-deprived and starved, knowing every inch of the way to the goal where food is, first ambling as they begin to traverse the maze, then proceeding more rapidly, accelerating as they go, picking up greater and greater speed as they approach the goal. The closer the sense of goal the greater the expenditure of energy. Perhaps the teacher-in-training can learn from the rat psychologists that you must have numerous intervening sub-goals, or way-stations, within sight of one another, rather than one large goal, far off. Rewards must be built into each section of the lesson, rather than as a terminal, remote reward at the end of the week or term. To promise a Negro child his equal opportunity to become president of the United States will stimulate him less than his equal opportunity to go on to college, and even the latter goal is usually too remote, and needs sub-division into component way-stations.

3. Finally, Skinner's lever-pressing rats inform the classroom teacher, as do also his pigeons, that without reward no learning is possible. Somehow, somewhere, the classroom, the teacher, or the pupil's own world, must permit satisfactions, else no learning will take place. Given the assurance that the pellet of reinforcement will drop, all kinds of reward schedules are available to the teacher.

The multiplication and complication of reward patterns lead to monkeys that manipulate one-arm-bandit slot machines, to Harlow rats that learn-to-learn, so similar to Bateson's deutero-learning, and to the involvements of the Pavlovian second-signal-system in Soviet educational theory. They are instructive of classroom patterns in learning, even if not strictly parallel.

Questions for Discussion:

1. If populations in disadvantaged communities offer an unexplored possibility for repetition of experiments carried on with groups of college students (the usual subjects), and if data gathered by educational psychologists on classroom climate, composition, spelling, reading, and handwriting can be repeated on a Negro and Puerto Rican population, would such experimentation be helpful or harmful to the new population? Would the Hawthorne effect be in a constructive or destructive direction?

## Lecture 8. Reinforcement and Symbolism:

Unfortunately, even after granting the place of rewards and punishments in a rat, we do not know how these are defined by human beings, because symbolic values, like art, religion, friendship, and status govern us and, by arrangements of these, we can generate rewards and punishments unknown in animal as in most laboratory experimentation. Thus all the statistics on massed versus distributed learning are knocked into a cocked hat once we introduce concepts of nonsense versus meaningful materials, so that we cannot even compare the values of massed and distributed learning, or whole-versus-part learning, without knowing the degree of meaningfulness in the materials employed and the way they have been infused with symbolism.

The importance of meaningfulness and symbolic structure in human learning are attested to by work as separated as the 1885 Ebbinghaus experiments and the recent isolation studies of Hebb. Both studies indicate that symbolism, or better, emotionalism, infuse even the most abstract and intellectualized tasks. We cannot learn without infusing symbol, meaning, or emotion into the thing to be learned. Indeed, Hebb indicates that symbol, meaning, and emotion pour out of us even when there is no objective task to be learned, as constantly as we perspire.

So symbolic systems contribute heavily to our concepts of reward and punishment, but social values contribute heavily to our symbol systems. If, in some schools, teachers are targets, and in others are icon-figures, what are the social networks between student and student and between student and teacher in each of these situations? What are the rewards in annoying the teacher? In pleasing the teacher? The student's social network, the home social network, the community social network, have outcomes in the student's symbol system and consequently in his evaluation of what constitutes a reward and what a punishment.

The school cannot adequately deal with the child unless it knows what this child's history has been. With middle-class children the teacher knows almost automatically, because his history is not too dissimilar and the symbol structure has an almost point-to-point correspondence, as Havighurst and his co-workers have shown.

Not so with the disadvantaged child, who experiences a sense of difference the very first day he walks into school. At how early an age does the white child know that Negroes are servants and white people not? At how early an age does the Negro child learn to prefer white dolls to dark ones? At what age can the child of either race associate superordination-subordination with skin color? All the evidence indicates an age not later than the beginnings of organized speech.

Nevertheless, education can work profitably with these symbol systems in the child, if supplemented by family and community resources.

Questions for discussion:

1. Assume a branch facility of Yeshiva University, set up in Bedford-Stuyvesant or Harlem, working in conjunction with local agencies in individual and group therapy, and augmented by the facilities of the faculty in experimental psychology and in psychiatry. The facility anticipates substantial assistance and funds from governmental and foundation sources. How would you plan for effective liaison between experimentalists and clinicians? Between clinicians and psychiatrists? Between psychology and sociology? Between clinic and school? Between clinic and community? What aspects of the liaison would be programmatic and action-oriented? What aspects would be problem-oriented and research-oriented?

## Lecture 9. Tests and Measurements:

The Negro child already has emotional and symbolic deficit by the time it learns to talk. Much before the Negro child enters its first classroom, this process of cultural and social deprivation has begun. A spiritual expropriation has long been active and white faces express it. When, further, so much home talk deals with whites in terms of superordination-subordination, the Negro child's school expectations are different from the white child's.

In brief, a long and significant biography deals with inner symbolism that relates directly to school performance.

However, the preschool child, the elementary school child, the junior high school pupil, and the teenager in high school, manifest different needs and drives at different ages. The early school years show fewer conflicts--overtly at least--than do the junior high school years. This relates to the similarity in I.Q. scores in Negro and white children at the beginning of school and the increasing disparity in these scores as children grow older, as educational and environmental deprivations become progressively manifest. White children in backward mountain areas in the Ozarks show a similar progressive deterioration in I.Q. scores.

Since testing is less discriminating in younger children and becomes more differentiating as the child grows older, tests are perhaps too unreliable to reflect innate differences at early ages. Given higher test reliability at later ages one can more definitely say that environment and experience have penalized the Negro child, as they have the Tennessee whites.

In other words, scores tell us something but circumstances and context surrounding the testing situation tell us even more. As Thorndike and Hagen point out, a 90 I.Q. in a Negro child in Mississippi, and the same score in the son of a wealthy banker in a cultured Massachusetts suburb, require interpretation in terms of background. Are both children equally intelligent? The Negro child's score reflects a deprived educational background, bad schooling, and an unhealthy, unstable social background. The white boy's score reflects privilege, education of a generally good level, and a cultured home background. The Negro child is operating at the very floor of his potential, which, under other circumstances, would be more fully realized. The Negro boy is bright. Conversely, the Massachusetts child is operating at or near the ceiling of his innate ability because of his environmental advantages. Considering these advantages, one can judge that he is an extraordinarily well trained and well nurtured moron, quite effectively coached, and has greatly benefited by the opportunities thrown his way.

In brief, statistics must be accompanied by interpretation, and testing by logic. A good test, like Newton's diffraction grating which takes undifferentiated white light and breaks it down to its constituent wave length and colors, takes undifferentiated populations and groups and breaks them down according to the qualities being tested. The better the test, the better it diffracts the distribution, provided the trait measured has a random distribution.

## Questions for Discussion:

1. Observe that the Normal Curve describes the distribution of height, weight, and intelligence. This implies that people are different. On the other hand, Floyd Allport's J-curve of Conforming Behavior implies that people are the same. How does the J-curve involve clearly understood standards? How do clearly understood standards skew the Normal Curve to the J-curve?

2. An instructor will say that he "marks on the curve." Does he refer to the Normal Curve or to the J-curve? Under which case can you infer that he has had no effect on his students? Is it part of the teacher's job to skew the Normal Curve?

## Lecture 10. Educational Statistics:

Randomness is illustrated by the curve known variously at the bell-shaped curve, the Normal Curve, the Gaussian curve, the probability curve. This is the curve we get when we measure the variation of height, or weight, or intelligence in a large unselected population, or the proportion of heads and tails when we toss ten coins a thousand times. The curve, by its flatness or peakedness, pictures variations.

Note, however, that the random curve no longer describes the situation when we reduce randomness by tightening or introducing standards, requirements, training, education, advantages, or other special circumstances. Hence, if we were to tighten educational objectives and improve educational standards for Negro children, the curve would take on a skewed appearance because we were tampering with randomness, which is precisely the teacher's job.

The normal curve is Calvinistic--so many are of the elect and so many are of the damned, almost in specified proportions, as given by areas under the curve. The teacher's responsibility is to reduce this randomness. The teacher cannot accept randomness, any more than engineers have passively accepted the data of science. Given these data, the engineer designs atomic reactors, water desalinization plants, and automobiles. Given the data of the normal curve, the teacher must limit randomness, must plan, must direct energies, curricula, and outcomes, must design techniques, that the spectrum of intelligence may shift and skew toward the upper end.

Now some people will say that the teacher can do nothing to change intelligence, or skew the curve. For example, Shuey, Garrett, Weil, and others, claim that since the obtained spectrum of Negro intelligence overlaps with the obtained spectrum of white intelligence only to a slight degree, that nothing can or should be done about it. However, this may mean, first, that Negroes are born less intelligent, or second, that conditions have made them that way. Most social scientists and educators believe that the latter is true and that racial intelligence is primarily a matter of environment rather than of heredity, while individual intelligence is more a function of heredity, rather than of environment. What does this imply for the teacher's role in the disadvantaged community? An awareness of the limitations on human alterability enables the teacher to concentrate more fully on his task: guided individual change.

## VI. TRAINING PROGRAMS

The only thing that can be said with certainty concerning most of the following PROJECT BEACON training programs, is that they will have to be revised.

A few of the training programs have not yet been spelled out in any detail, primarily because Graduate School of Education staff-members have not yet gained sufficient experience to enable them to do so. Even where programs are presented in full detail (and this is usually the case in the pages that follow) we are well aware of the fact that experience, evaluation and research will lead us to revise many of the details. In some cases, such revisions are already being planned.

Several of the training programs are constrained by the requirements of state certification. As long as no separate certificates are granted for specialists in the education of the socially and culturally disadvantaged, and as long as courses which aim at the preparation of such specialists are not acceptable toward current state certificates, certain BEACON programs will consist largely of courses carrying traditional titles. In all such cases these courses will be enriched by additional content, field experiences and/or integrating seminars.

Training programs involve much more than courses. This is so even when the courses themselves involve field experiences, seminars, and research opportunities instead of lectures alone. Training programs involve integrative concepts and the distinction between foundational and advanced sequences. However, in addition, training programs also involve student-faculty relationships which call into play identification, intellectualization, enthusiasm, responsibility and commitment. These latter ingredients cannot be neatly written out and prescribed, they cannot be translated into credits and they do not appear on transcripts. Nevertheless, they are at the core of all graduate training programs worthy of the name. We hope and believe that they are at the core of PROJECT BEACON even though they are not specifically referred to in any of the programs that are spelled out on the following pages.

## DEPARTMENT OF CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION

### 1. Introduction

All might be well were it possible to hold off educating socially disadvantaged children for an appreciable number of years so that we might look into the many experiments which could give us a firmer theoretical base upon which to build teacher education programs. How much better off we would be if we but knew whether it was desirable to establish combined under-graduate-and-graduate programs in teacher education for the students drawn from disadvantaged communities. Will such students make appropriate teachers for other disadvantaged children or will they, as they gain the educational advantages of college, remove themselves as far as possible from their backgrounds and refuse or be unable to teach in disadvantaged areas? Can the idealism which lies at the philosophical base of programs in many small, liberal arts colleges (Swarthmore, Haverford, for example) effectively contribute to the preparation of young people who will become the expert educators in schools serving the socially disadvantaged? Can the Negro liberal arts colleges (Fisk, Howard, for example) provide better leadership personnel than liberal art colleges primarily serving white students? Unfortunately, we cannot wait until these and many other problems are definitively answered. We are forced to make training decisions under conditions of great uncertainty. We must face up to the immediate problems of preparing personnel for socially disadvantaged children in today's schools. The only basis upon which such personnel can be prepared is to make use of what is now known(little though it is) about sound teaching procedures and sound teacher education.

A currently propounded rationale for teacher education specifies the behavioral sciences as foundational to the entire educational enterprise. Thus, "building the curriculum" must be examined and justified historically, philosophically, sociologically, and psychologically. In like manner, "the aims and policies of the school" must be considered through these same disciplines. Course work, however, even course work which is built primarily upon the behavioral sciences, is insufficient. If education is to become effective, the prospective teacher must be trained in programs which allow him to understand and use the methodologiesof the behavioral sciences as he performs his teaching duties; he must be able to use them to make the necessary adaptations of subject matter and teaching technique to the unique needs of his school community, his individual classroom, and his particular students. In short, his education must include the study of both the findings and theories of the social sciences and the processes through which these have been arrived at.

The Graduate School of Education proposes to build its PROJECT BEACON teacher/administrator programs upon this general structure. The unifying approach to these programs lies in the integration of courses(which stress theory) with internship experiences (in the socially disadvantaged community stressing practice) through the medium of a carefully planned and organized internship seminar.

NOTE: Most of the BEACON programs in the Department of Curriculum and Instruction are governed by the New York State Education Department certificates. Due to this fact few novel courses are admissible for these programs. Although many of the courses listed below have "tried and true" titles, the reader should remember that course content in all cases, will be enriched and oriented toward BEACON skills and understandings."

## 2. Training Programs

### A. Project BEACON PROGRAM for the Preparation of Pre-Service Teachers for Grades One Through Six

1. Admission Requirements: A bachelor's degree from an accredited liberal arts college with the following minimal requirements:

A. 15 semester hours of course work in each of the following areas:

1. The humanities (including at least three semester hours in philosophy)
2. The social sciences (including at least twelve semester hours from among two or more of the

following disciplines: anthropology, psychology, or sociology)

3. The natural sciences (including mathematics)

B. A sequence of at least twenty-four semester hours in _one_ of the above three areas beyond the basic, required fifteen hours.

Prior to admission to the program, students shall be required to take the Graduate Record Examination and to be interviewed by members of the _Project Beacon_ Staff to determine their aptitude for and commitment to the education of children from disadvantaged area communities.

2. _Degree Requirements_: 39 credits _including_ a six credit internship, and a Master's thesis. _This program is open to full-time, resident students only._ Completion of the program leads to New York State certification as an Elementary School Teacher and a Master of Science degree.

3. _Course Requirements_:

(a) 6 credits in social, philosophical and historical foundations of education. The following two courses are required:

| | |
|---|---|
| HISTORY OF EDUCATIONAL THOUGHT | 3 credits |
| SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY OF EDUCATION | 3 credits |

(b) 6 credits in behavioral sciences. The following two courses are required:

| | |
|---|---|
| CHILD DEVELOPMENT AND LEARNING | 3 credits |
| ADOLESCENT DEVELOPMENT AND LEARNING | 3 credits |

(e) 12 credits in methods and techniques of teaching in disadvantaged area schools. The following four courses are required:

| | |
|---|---|
| TEACHING LANGUAGE ARTS, ELEMENTARY K-6 | 3 credits |
| TEACHING MATHEMATICS, ELEMENTARY K-6 | 3 credits |
| TEACHING SOCIAL STUDIES, ELEMENTARY K-6 | 3 credits |
| SCIENCE FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS K-6 | 3 credits |

(d) 12 credits in field experiences. The following two courses are required:

| | |
|---|---|
| INTERNSHIP IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, 1-6 | 6 credits |
| INTERNSHIP SEMINAR I, II | 6 credits |

(e) 3 credits in Master's Thesis Seminar. The following course is required:

| | |
|---|---|
| MASTER"S THESIS SEMINAR | 3 credits |

4. Sequence: This program is designed so that it is completed during two summers and the intervening academic year. The pattern for the program is fixed as listed below:

(a) 1st Summer Session

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Part A | SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY OF EDUCATION | 3 credits |
| | CHILD DEVELOPMENT AND LEARNING | 3 credits |
| Part B | TEACHING LANGUAGE ARTS, ELEMENTARY K-6 | 3 credits |
| | TEACHING SOCIAL STUDIES, ELEMENTARY K-6 | 3 credits |

Courses in each part shall be taught by a single instructor or a team of instructors and each part shall be considered as a block.

### (b) Fall Semester

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Part A | TEACHING MATHEMATICS, ELEMENTARY K-6 | 3 credits |
| | SCIENCE FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS K-6 | 3 credits |
| Part B | INTERNSHIP SEMINAR I | 3 credits |
| | INTERNSHIP IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS I, 1-6 | 3 credits |

Courses in part A, shall be taught by the same instructor and shall be considered as a block. For information on internship, see special section below.

### (c) Spring Semester

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Part A | HISTORY OF EDUCATIONAL THOUGHT | 3 credits |
| | ADOLESCENT DEVELOPMENT AND LEARNING | 3 credits |
| Part B | INTERNSHIP SEMINAR II | 3 credits |
| | INTERNSHIP IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS II | 3 credits |

## INTERNSHIP AND INTERNSHIP SEMINAR

The internship and the internship seminar are essential phases of the program and shall consist of interrelated field and workshop experiences. During the academic year (and starting with the beginning of the public school term in the fall) students shall act as interns in public schools serving socially disadvantaged neighborhoods and in group work and case work agencies in these neighborhoods. These experiences will be discussed and evaluated in the accompanying internship seminar. In addition, during certain periods of the year, the students will undertake directed observation and special field trips in contrasting schools and neighborhoods so that they can more appropriately evaluate their own field experiences. Special workshops on the arts in elementary schools, on the teaching of reading, and on remediation practices will be included in the internship seminar. The internships and internship seminars will be jointly supervised and conducted by personnel from the Graduate School of Education and from the BEACON area schools and agencies.

(d) 2nd Summer Session

Master's thesis seminar and preparation of thesis. The following course is required:

MASTER'S THESIS SEMINAR 3 credits

B. PROJECT BEACON program for the Retraining of In-Service Teachers for Grades One Through Six

1. Admission Requirements: A bachelor's degree from an accredited teachers college or liberal arts college with the following minimal requirements:

(a) 75 semester hours in general studies including at least 12 semester hours each in the humanities, the social sciences, and the natural sciences (including mathematics.) In addition to the above distribution, the candidates must also present a 24 hour academic major.

(b) 24 semester hours of professional education and the equivalent of 300 clock hours of supervised instructional experience. The 24 semester hours must include at least 3 semester hours in philosophical, social, or historical foundations; 6 semester hours in educational and developmental psychology; and 9 semester hours in instructional methods and techniques for teaching at the elementary school level.

(c) Prior to admission to the program, students shall be required to take the Graduate Record Examination and to be interviewed by members of the *Project Beacon* Staff to determine their aptitude for and commitment to the education of children from disadvantaged area communities.

2. *Degree Requirements*: 33 credits including 3 credits of *Project Beacon* Practicum, and a Master's thesis. Completion of the program leads either to a Master of Science degree or to an Advanced Certificate ("Professional Diploma") as an Elementary School Teacher-Specialist in the Education of the Socially Disadvantaged.

3. *Course Requirements*;

(a) A 12 credit block in advanced behavioral sciences particularly related to problems of disadvantaged area schools and communities; specific courses shall be selected, under guidance, upon the basis of the student's previous academic experiences, his professional experiences, and his particular needs.

(b) A 9 credit block of advanced methods and materials courses particularly related to problems of disadvantaged area schools and communities and selected to enrich the professional techniques of the student.

(c) A 9 credit block in remediation practices; this block shall include two courses in remediation practices and a remediation practicum in which students will be able to try out and practice the techniques studies in their courses.

(d) Master's Thesis Seminar or Advanced Certificate Seminar

NOTE: Project Beacon in-service programs for elementary school teachers are currently being planned in greater detail.

## C. PROJECT BEACON PROGRAMS FOR THE PREPARATION OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SUPERVISORS, ELEMENTARY SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS OR SECONDARY SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

1. Admission Requirements: A bachelor's degree from an accredited college or university and permanent certification to each in New York State either at the elementary or at the secondary school level. An overall undergraduate and graduate record which indicates that the student gives promise of meeting the qualitative standards of the Graduate School of Education. An interview which will be concerned with the applicant's potential suitability for school supervision and/or administration. Satisfactory performance (scores of 500 or better) on the aptitude tests of the Graduate Record Examinations and the Advanced Education section. A minimum of three years of successful teaching experience as indicated by satisfactory recommendations from applicant's supervisory officer.

2. Elementary School Supervision

(a) Degree Requirements: 33 credits, either a comprehensive examination or a Master's thesis, and five years of approved and appropriate teaching and/or supervision experiences. Completion of the program leads to New York State certification as an Elementary School Supervisor and a Master of Science degree.

(b) Credit Requirements:

(1) 6 credits in supervision of elementary education.

PRINCIPLES OF ELEMENTARY SUPERVISON
(at beginning of program)
PROBLEMS IN ELEMENTARY SUPERVISION
(at end of program)

(2) 6 credits in curriculum problems and practices. Choice of two courses from the following:

RESEARCH IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION
DIAGNOSTIC AND REMEDIAL TECHNIQUES IN READING
EVALUATION IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

(3) 6 credits in guidance and special services. Choice of two courses from the following:

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL GUIDANCE
EDUCATION OF THE EXCEPTIONAL CHILD, or
PSYCHO-SOCIAL PROBLEMS OF THE HANDICAPPED

(4) 6 credits in social science. Choice of two courses from the following:

SOCIAL CHANGE AND SOCIAL DISORGANIZATION

THE URBAN COMMUNITY

ETHNIC RELATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES

(5) 6 credits in electives. Choice of two courses from the following:

PSYCHOLOGY OF MINORITY GROUP CHILDREN

GUIDANCE OF SOCIALLY DISADVANTAGED CHILDREN

NEW SCHOOLS FOR CRISIS AREAS

SOCIO-CULTURAL DISADVANTAGE AND ASSOCIATED LEARNING DISABILITIES

THE SCHOOL AS A MICROCOSM

SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY OF EDUCATION

OR courses in content areas selected under the guidance of the Chairman of the Department of Curriculum and Instruction.

(6) 3 credits in research. Choice of one course from the following:

RESEARCH METHODS AND EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

MASTER'S THESIS SEMINAR

3. Elementary School Administration

(a) Degree Requirements: 33 credits, either a comprehensive examination or a Master's Thesis, and five years of approved and appropriate teaching and/or administrative experience. Completion of the program leads to New York State Certification as an Elementary School Administrator and a Master of Science degree.

(b) Credit Requirements:

(1) 6 credits in elementary school administration.

PRINCIPLES OF ELEMENTARY ADMINISTRATION

PROBLEMS OF ELEMENTARY ADMINISTRATION

(2) 3 credits in administrative problems and practices - school law.

EDUCATION LAW

(3) 6 credits in elementary school problems and practices.

RESEARCH IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

CURRICULAR PATTERNS IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

EVALUATION IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

(4) 3 credits in guidance and special services. Choice of one course from the following:

GUIDANCE IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

PSYCHO-SOCIAL PROBLEMS OF THE HANDICAPPED, or

EDUCATION OF THE EXCEPTIONAL CHILD

(5) 6 credits in social science. Choice of two courses from the following:

SOCIAL CHANGE AND SOCIAL DISORGANIZATION

THE URBAN COMMUNITY

ETHNIC RELATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES

(6) 6 credits in electives. Choice of two courses from the following:

DYNAMIC EDUCATION FOR URBAN COMMUNITIES

PSYCHOLOGY OF MINORITY GROUP CHILDREN

GUIDANCE OF SOCIALLY DISADVANTAGED CHILDREN

NEW SCHOOLS FOR CRISIS AREAS

SOCIO-CULTURAL DISADVANTAGE AND ASSOCIATED LEARNING DISABILITIES

THE SCHOOL AS A MICROCOSM

SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY OF EDUCATION

Or courses in content areas selected under the guidance of the Chairman of the Department of Curriculum and Instruction.

(7) 3 credits in research. Choice of one course from the following:

RESEARCH METHODS AND EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

MASTER'S THESIS SEMINAR

4. Secondary School Administration

(a) Degree Requirements: 33 credits, either a comprehensive examination or a Master's thesis, and five years of approved and appropriate teaching and/or administrative experience. Completion of the program leads to New York State certification as a Secondary School Administrator and a Master of Science Degree.

(b) Credit Requirements:

(1) 6 credits in secondary school administration.

PRINCIPLES OF SECONDARY ADMINISTRATION

PROBLEMS OF SECONDARY ADMINISTRATION

(2) 6 credits in administrative problems and practices - school law.

EDUCATION LAW

ADMINISTRATION OF GUIDANCE SERVICES

(3) 6 credits in secondary school problems and practices. Choice of two courses from the following:

RESEARCH IN SECONDARY EDUCATION
CURRICULAR PATTERNS IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS
EVALUATION IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS

(4) 6 credits in social science. Choice of two courses from the following:

SOCIAL CHANGE AND SOCIAL DISORGANIZATION
THE URBAN COMMUNITY
ETHNIC RELATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES

(5) 6 credits in electives. Choice of two courses from the following:

PSYCHOLOGY OF MINORITY GROUP CHILDREN
GUIDANCE OF SOCIALLY DISADVANTAGED CHILDREN
NEW SCHOOLS FOR CRISIS AREAS
SOCIO-CULTURAL DISADVANTAGE AND ASSOCIATED
LEARNING DISABILITIES
THE SCHOOL AS A MICROCOSM
SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY OF EDUCATION

OR courses in content areas selected under the guidance of the Chairman of the Department of Curriculum and Instruction.

(6) 3 credits in research. Choice of one course from the following:

RESEARCH METHODS AND EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN
MASTER'S THESIS SEMINAR

PROJECT BEACON PROGRAM:

## D. DOCTOR OF EDUCATION WITH A MAJOR IN SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

1. Admission Requirements: A Master's degree in school administration from an accredited graduate school and certification as a school principal (either elementary or secondary) from New York State.

2. Degree Requirements: 90 credits beyond the bachelor's degree including an internship in a disadvantaged area school, comprehensive examinations, and a doctoral thesis. Up to 42 credits taken elsewhere at the graduate level may be credited towards the ninety providing such credits meet the requirements for transfer of credits of the Graduate School of Education and of the Department of Curriculum and Instruction.

3. Credit Requirements:

   a. 30 credits of Master's level courses in school administration (or equivalent)

   b. Theory of Administration - 6 credits: A study of various theoretical bases of administrative practices.

   c. Skills of Administration - 12 credits: Developing skills in personnel leadership and personnel evaluation, school finance, plant maintenance and planning, public relations, and the like.

   d. Skills and Knowledge in PROJECT BEACON Administration - 24 credits: Developing understanding of the disadvantaged area community and the children who live in it. Developing the necessary skills to carry out social research for building school programs uniquely designed for the disadvantaged area.

Study of the tools of research including research design, problem analysis, and statistics.

e. Field Experiences in a PROJECT BEACON school as an administrative assistant - 12 credits.

f. Doctoral Seminar and Thesis - 6 credits

NOTE: The PROJECT BEACON Doctoral Program in School Administration is currently being planned in greater detail. A BEACON doctoral program in Supervision is also currently being planned.

## DEPARTMENT OF SPECIAL EDUCATION

## E. AN IN-SERVICE PROGRAM FOR SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHERS IN BEACON SCHOOLS.

### 1. Background

Special classes for exceptional children in BEACON schools are mainly of two types: those for the educable mentally retarded and those for the physically handicapped. Of these, classes for the retarded constitute a large majority. The remaining special classes are few in number and accomodate children with chronic health problems, mental health problems and some with sensory handicaps.

Most teachers in these special classes are certified in common branch subjects as well as in their area of specialization. The few exceptions are those who have their common branch certification and are currently engaged in meeting the requirements for their special field.

Characteristically, special class teachers have followed the sequence below in arriving at their present status.

1. They have attended a teacher-preparation institution, either full or part-time, in pursuit of their common branch certificate.

2. They have taught in regular classes for at least two years in most cases, and for as many as twenty years in some cases. On the average they have had about five years of teaching experience in regular classes.

3. While on the job, they attended one or more teacher-preparation institutions and acquired the twelve credits necessary to meet certification in their special field. This is usually accomplished over a two year period but may extend for as long as four years. Some acquire the necessary credit in the course of their master's degree work.

The nature of certification programs for special class teachers indicates that although some of the preparation is specific to their special field, much of it is also highly general across the entire field of exceptionality. Little concentration is given to any one type of retarded, physically handicapped or disturbed child.

## 2. The Problem

As seen by this Department, the problem is to design a program of in-service training for teachers of special classes that will function in two dimensions. In the horizontal dimension, it will be necessary to draw teachers with widely differing prepartion and with resultant variations in conceptualization of the nature of their functions into a common frame of reference. The vertical dimension would be concerned with extending or deepening the teacher's knowledge of the types of exceptional children represented in BEACON schools.

The horizontal dimension will be concerned with a reassessment of concepts in special education and with emphasis on the relationship between the status of the child and the learning disabilities characteristic of classificatory types. The emphasis will be on:

a. The most recent concepts of what constitutes mental and physical disability.

b. The nature of learning disabilities associated with exceptionality in general and with exceptionality compounded by social disadvantage more specifically.

c. A deeper understanding of current procedures in the diagnosis of learning disabilities in children with mental and physical disability, and

d. A deeper understanding of the nature and administration of remedial procedures as they are indicated by diagnosis.

The vertical dimension will be concerned with the ecological factors impinging on the education of BEACON children in special classes. Here the emphasis will be on:

a. The social psychology of the disadvantaged area as a general approach to educational understanding based on social psychological principles.

b. The interaction between certain factors in the child's milieu and the processes and goals of education.

c. The learning disabilities associated with social and cultural deprivation.

d. A systematic approach to a method of instruction, and,

e. Conceptualization and organization of curriculum.

### 3. Procedure

Since certification of teachers is not a primary goal in this BEACON program, major attention can be given to increasing the teachers knowledge and competence in BEACON settings. This will be accomplished through course work and seminars as follows:

| | |
|---|---|
| The Exceptional Person in School and Society | 3 credits |
| Psycho-Educational Diagnosis | 3 credits |
| Remediation of Learning Disabilities | 3 credits |
| Social Psychology of Education | 3 credits |
| Social Disadvantage and Learning Disabilities | 3 credits |
| Seminar: Curriculum and Methods for Handicapped Socially Disadvantaged Children | 3 credits |
| | 18 credits |

The above courses can accomodate BEACON trainees with students with other goals. The Seminar in Curriculum and Methods will be appropriate only for BEACON trainees since it will be restricted to functioning in the BEACON School context.

The 18 credits listed above will be applicable towards a 36 credit Advanced Certificate, ("Professional Diploma"). The remaining 18 credits will be selected under advisement. Their precise nature will depend on the student's particular specialization and his general preparation in psychology and education.

## DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY AND GUIDANCE: PREPARATION OF BEACON SPECIALISTS IN PUPIL SERVICES

### 1. Introduction

Pupil Personnel Services are concerned with the relationship of life experience to capacity, readiness and opportunity for learning; with choice, placement, adjustment and achievement in situations of learning and social productivity; and with the facilitation of systematized group and individual instruction and learning. From the point of view of the pupil personnel specialist the characteristics and needs of children handicapped by socio-economic pathology and cultural-experiential atypicality may be divided into three groups. Group one would include the needs for help in symbolic representation, perceptual habituation, attention and concentration and concept formation and may be referred to as *capacities and skills* in mastery of knowledge. The second group would include the need for help in the areas of motivation and attitudinal preparation and may be referred to as *attitudes and values*. Group three would consist of the need for help in order to offset the negative impact on school adjustment of the *problems of daily living*.

Specialists in pupil personnel services will be concerned with all three groups of needs. Guidance workers will have special responsibilities in the appraisal of *capacities and skills* and will carry primary responsibility for guiding educational and vocational choice and placement in relation to the development and use of individual capacities and skills. With the growing emphasis in teacher preparation on subject matter and on content of curriculum, guidance workers may assume constantly increasing responsibility for problems of design and adaptation of learning experiences appropriate to the development of pupil capacities and skills. Because of the special needs *Beacon* children have with respect to identification and clarification of capacities, skills, and attitudes and values, guidance workers will carry special responsibility for *insuring the existence of conditions and experiences by which wholesome and meaningful values and attitudes may become operative despite the concrete problems of daily living of disadvantaged learners*.

School psychologists will be particularly trained to assume major responsibility for appraisal of capacities, skills, attitudes and values. In addition they will be prepared to exercise leadership in the analysis of problem learners and the design and evaluation of experimental approaches to learning. Therapeutic teachers will be trained to integrate the best concepts and procedures from educational and psychological management in the development of appropriate capacities, skills, attitudes and values in children who are psycho-socially handicapped. These master teachers will be prepared to give leadership and direction to educational programs designed for children whose disordered behavior has exceeded the limits of normalcy even within the disadvantaged population. Educational psychologists will be trained to institute programs of research and evaluation whereby the teaching of disadvantaged learners and the training of BEACON personnel can be constantly improved in the light of experience and formal findings.

The pupil personnel services section of PROJECT BEACON will seek to prepare guidance workers, therapeutic teachers, school psychologists and educational psychologists. Through its programs of courses, supervised experience and research activities, the Department seeks to develop in its students:

1. An understanding of human development and adjustment, the nature of human social organization and the dynamics of social interaction as reflected in the behavioral sciences;

2. An understanding of the relationship of physical, mental, psychological, social and educational status and information to capacity and readiness for learning, to the design of learning experiences and to the guidance of human development;

3. Knowledge and skill in the appraisal of educational, emotional, social, mental and physical status;

4. Knowledge of the laws of learning in their application to academic, emotional and social learning situations;

5. Skill in the utiliztion and development of materials and procedures leading to the use of appropriate aspects of the environment and in the use of oneself to influence and modify individual and group attitudes and behavior;

6. Skill in the conceptualization of problems and in the utilization of qualitative and quantitative approaches to problem solution in the tradition of the scientific method as prerequisites to continued growth as a scholar and professional worker; and

7. Integration of all of the above mentioned types of understanding, knowledge and skill with personal attitudes and behaviors so as to reflect respect for human life and welfare and commitment to the search for truth, the maintenance of integrity and the achievement of social productivity for the educator as well as for those served.

## 2. Programs of Study:

### F. Master of Science and University Professional Diploma in Therapeutic Education (BEACON).

Semester I (M.S. & Diploma Programs)

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Human Development I: Child Development and Learning | 6 | credits |
| Education of Exceptional Children | 2 | " |
| Childhood Disorders of Behavior & Mentation | 3 | " |
| Principles of Psychotherapeutic Education | 3 | " |
| | 14 | |

Semester II (M.S. & Diploma Programs)

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Human Development II: Adolescent Development and Learning | 6 | credits |
| The Psycho-Socially Handicapped Child | 3 | " |
| Curricular Patterns in Therapeutic Education | 2 | " |
| Child and Environmental Appraisal | 2 | " |
| Practicum in Therapeutic Education I | 1 | " |
| | 28 | |

Semester III (M.S. Program)

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Practicum in Therapeutic Education II | 2 | credits |
| Social Psychology of Education | 3 | " |
| Research Methods in the Behavioral Sciences | 3 | " |
| | 36 | |

Students may take Master's Comprehensive Examination or submit Master's Thesis and apply for M.S. degree upon completion of above sequence.

Semester III (Professional Diploma Program)

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Practicum in Therapeutic Education II | 2 | credits |
| Social Psychology of Education | 3 | " |
| Research Methods in the Behavioral Sciences | 3 | " |
| Specific Learning Disabilities I | 3 | " |
| Human Learning and Behavioral Change | 3 | " |
| | 42 | |

Semester IV (Professional Diploma Program)

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Psycho-Educational Team Operations | 2 | credits |
| Group Dynamics and Classroom Interaction | 2 | " |
| Concepts of Psycho-Educational Management | 3 | " |
| Curriculum Modification (Elementary)<br>or<br>Curriculum Modification (Secondary) | 3 | " |
| Practicum in Therapeutic Education III | 2 | " |
| Specific Learning Disabilities II | 3 | " |
| | 57 | |

Semester V (Professional Diploma Program)

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Physical and Mental Health Status | 3 | credits |
| Seminar in Therapeutic Education I & II | 4 | " |
| Internship in Therapeutic Education | 4 | " |
| | 68 | |

Application for the Professional Diploma may be made upon completion of above sequence.

G. Master of Science; Permanent New York State Certification and University Professional Diploma in School Psychological Services; and Doctor of Education in School Psychology (BEACON).

Semester I (All Programs)

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Human Development I: Child Development and Learning | 6 | credits |
| Guidance and Education | 2 | " |
| Statistics I | 3 | " |
| Systems of Psychology | 3 | " |
| | 14 | |

Semester II (All Programs)

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Psychometric Theory I | 3 | credits |
| Experimental Psychology I | 4 | " |
| Human Development II: Adolescent Development and Learning | 6 | " |
| | 27 | |

Semester III (M.S. Program)

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Intelligence and Personality Appraisal | 3 | credits |
| Social Psychology of Education | 3 | " |
| Patterns of Human Adjustment | 3 | " |
| | 36 | |

Students may take Masters Comprehensive Examination or submit Master's thesis and apply for M.S. degree upon completion of above sequence.

Semester III (Diploma and Ed. D. Programs)

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Intelligence and Personality Appraisal | 3 | credits |
| Social Psychology of Education | 3 | " |
| Patterns of Human Adjustment | 3 | " |
| Childhood Disorders of Behavior and Mentation | 3 | " |
| Concepts and Techniques of Counseling | 2 | " |
| | 41 | " |

Semester IV (Diploma & Ed. D. Programs)

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| The School as a Microcosm | 2 | credits |
| Comparative Education | 3 | " |
| Intellingence and Personality Appraisal | 3 | " |
| Practicum in Counseling I | 2 | " |
| Elective: One course from the following: | 3 | " |
| Psychology of Minority Group Children | 54 | |
| The Urban Community | | |
| Ethnic Relations in the U.S. | | |
| or | | |
| Cultural Anthropology | | |

Semester V (Diploma & Ed. D. Programs)

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Practicum in School Psychology I | 3 | credits |
| Seminar in Developmental Psychology | 3 | " |
| Child & Environmental Appraisal | 2 | " |
| Specific Learning Disabilities I | 2 | " |
| Physical & Mental Health Status | 3 | " |
| | 67 | |

Semester VI (Diploma Program)

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Practicum in School Psychology II | 3 | credits |
| Socio-Cultural Disadvantage and Associated Learning Disabilities | 3 | " |
| Human Learning and Behavioral Change | 3 | " |
| | 76 | |

Application for the Professional Diploma nd Permanent Certification in School Psychology may be made upon completion of above sequence.

Semester VI (Ed. D. Program)

| | |
|---|---|
| Practicum in School Psychology II | 3 credits |
| Socio-Cultural Disadvantage and Associated Learning Disabilities | 3 " |
| Human Learning and Behavioral Change | 3 " |
| Statistics II | 3 " |
| | 79 |

Semester VII (Ed.D. Program)

| | |
|---|---|
| Internship in School Psychology (Full Time) | 0 credits |
| Seminar in School Psychological Service | 1 " |
| Experimental Psychology II | 4 " |
| Doctoral Seminar I | 3 " |
| | 87 |

Semester VIII (Ed. D. Program)

| | |
|---|---|
| Internship in School Psychology (Full Time) | 0 credits |
| Seminar in School Psychological Service | 1 " |
| Psychometric Theory II | 3 " |
| Doctoral Seminar II | 3 " |
| Elective: One course from the following:<br>Advanced Psychometric Methods<br>Advanced Educational Psychology<br>Psycho-Educational Experimentation<br>Concepts of Psycho-Educational Management | 3 " |

H. Master of Science; Permanent New York State Certification and University Professional Diploma in School Guidance Services; and Doctor of Education in Guidance (BEACON).

Semester I (all programs)

| | |
|---|---|
| Human Development I: Child Development and Learning | 6 credits |
| Guidance and Education | 3 " |
| Guidance in Elementary Education or Guidance in Secondary Education | 2 " |
| Techniques of Guidance | 2 " |
| Practicum in Guidance | 1 " |
| | 14 |

Semester II (all programs)

| | |
|---|---|
| Human Development: Adolescent Development and Learning | 6 credits |
| Basic Concepts and Techniques of Counseling | 2 " |
| Informational Resources in Guidance | 2 |
| Mental and Educational Measurement | 3 " |
| Practicum in Guidance II | 2 " |
| | 29 |

### Semester III (M.S. degree program)

| | |
|---|---|
| Statistics I | 3 Credits |
| Educational and Occupational Information | 2 " |
| Research Methods in Behavioral Sciences | 3 " |
| | 37 |

Students may take the master's comprehensive examination or submit master's thesis and apply for the master of science degree upon completion of above sequence.

### Semester III (Diploma and Ed. D. programs)

| | |
|---|---|
| Statistics I | 3 credits |
| Educational and Occupational Information | 2 " |
| Research Methods in Behavioral Sciences | 3 " |
| Measurement and Appraisal for Counselors | 3 " |
| The Elementary School Curriculum or the Secondary School Curriculum | 3 " |
| | 43 |

### Semester IV (Diploma Program)

| | |
|---|---|
| Administrative Problems in Guidance | 2 credits |
| Practicum in Counseling I | 2 " |
| Practicum in Guidance III | 2 " |
| Social Psychology of Education | 3 " |
| Child and Environmental Appraisal | 2 " |
| Psychology of Small Groups I | 2 " |
| | 56 |

### Semester V (Diploma Program)

| | |
|---|---|
| Psychology of Small Groups II | 2 credits |
| Practicum in Counseling II or III | 2 " |
| Human Learning and Behavioral Change | 3 " |
| Urban Community | 3 " |
| | 66 |

Application may be made for Professional Diploma and State Certification in School Guidance Services following completion of above sequence.

### Semester IV (Ed. D. Program)

| | |
|---|---|
| Administrative Problems in Guidance | 2 credits |
| Practicum in Counseling I | 2 " |
| Statistics II | 3 " |
| Social Psychology of Education | 3 " |
| Child and Environmental Appraisal | 2 " |
| Psychology of Small Groups I | 2 " |
| | 57 |

Semester V (Ed.D. Program)

| | |
|---|---|
| Psychology of Small Groups II | 2 credits |
| Experimentation and Research in Guidance | 2 " |
| Human Learning and Behavioral Change | 3 " |
| Urban Community | 3 " |
| Concepts of Psycho-Educational Management | 3 " |
| | 70 |

Semester VI (Ed.D. Program)

| | |
|---|---|
| Seminar in Guidance I | 2 credits |
| Practicum in Guidance III, IV or V | 2 " |
| Seminar in Developmental Psychology | 3 " |
| Cultural Anthropology | 3 " |
| Doctoral Seminar I | 3 " |
| | 83 |

Semester VII (Ed. D. Program)

| | |
|---|---|
| Seminar in Guidance II or III | 2 credits |
| Advanced Educational Psychology or Seminar in Education Psychology | 3 " |
| Doctoral Seminar II | 3 " |
| Electives: Choice of two of the following courses: | 5 " |

Psychology of Minority Group Children
School as a Microcosm
Physical and Mental Health Status
Guidance of Socially Disadvantaged Children
Socio-cultural Disadvantage and Associated Learning Disabilities

## I. M.S. and Ph.D. Degrees in Educational Psychology (BEACON).

Semester I (M.S. & Ph.D.)

| | |
|---|---|
| Human Development I | 6 |
| Statistics I | 3 |
| Systems of Psychology | 3 |
| | 12 |

Semester II (M.S. & Ph.D.)

| | |
|---|---|
| Human Development II | 6 |
| Statistics II | 3 |
| Patterns of Human Adjustment | 3 |
| | 24 |

Semester III (M.S. & Ph.D.)

| | |
|---|---|
| Experimental Psychology | 4 |
| Psychometric Methods I | 3 |
| Childhood Disorders of Behavior | 3 |
| Seminar in Developmental Psychology | 3 |
| | 37 |

Semester IV (Ph.D.)

| | |
|---|---|
| Experimental Psychology II | 4 |
| Psychometric Methods II | 3 |
| Statistics III | 3 |
| Social Psychology of Education | 3 |
| | 50 |

Students may take the master's comprehensive examination or submit a master's thesis and apply for the Master of Science degree upon completion of the 37 credits listed in the M.S. degree sequence above.

### Semester V (Ph.D. Ed. Psy.)

| | |
|---|---|
| Clinical Methods | 3 credits |
| Human Learning and Behavioral Change | 3 " |
| Electives: choice of two of the following courses: | 6 " |
| | 62 |
| Psychology of Minority Group Children | |
| Ethnic Relations in the U.S. | |
| Guidance and Education | |
| School as a Microcosm | |

### Semester VI (Ph.D.)

| | |
|---|---|
| Comparative Education | 3 credits |
| Field and Methodology of the Social Sciences | 3 " |
| Research in Educational Psychology I (Lab) | 3 " |
| Electives: choice of two of the following courses: | 6 " |
| | 76 |
| Child and Environmental Appraisal | |
| Intelligence and Personality Appraisal | |
| Socio-cultural Disadvantage and Related Learning Disabilities | |
| Specific Learning Disabilities I and/or II | |

### Semester VII (Ph.D.)

| | |
|---|---|
| Generic Problems in Social Sciences | 3 credits |
| Advanced Educational Psychology | 3 " |
| Seminar in Educational Psychology | 3 " |
| Research in Educational Psychology II (Lab) | 2 " |
| Elective | 3 " |
| | 90 |

### Semester VIII (Ph.D.)

| | |
|---|---|
| Research Internship and Seminar (Full time) | 0 credits |
| Doctoral Seminar I | 3 " |
| | 93 |

### Semester IX (Ph.D.)

| | |
|---|---|
| Research Internship and Seminar (Full time) | 0 credits |
| Doctoral Seminar II | 3 " |
| | 96 |

## J. NON-DEGREE PROGRAM IN PROJECT BEACON

Since many persons seeking special preparation for work with socially and culturally disadvantaged populations may not be interested in additional degrees but do seek professional growth, a non-degree sequence is available in the Program for Professional Growth in Services for Disadvantaged Children and Youth. Mature students with appropriate experiences in individual or group instruction, group work, recreation, counseling, community organization or religious work may, with the approval of the coordinator of the program, register for selected courses or the full sequence.

### Program for Professional Growth in Services for Disadvantaged Children and Youth

Semester I

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| SS 520 | The Urban Community | 3 credits |
| PG 230 | Guidance and Education | 3 " |
| PG 111 | Child Development and Learning | 3 " |
| SE 268a | Social Disadvantage and Learning Disabilities | 2 " |
| PG 233.1a | Informational Resources in Guidance | 2 " |
| | | 13 credits |

Semester II

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| PG 281a | Basic Concepts and Techniques of Counseling | 2 credits |
| PG 112 | Adolescent Development and Learning | 3 " |
| PG 115 | Psychology of Minority Group Children | 3 " |
| PG 182.1a | Group Dynamics and Classroom Interaction I | 2 " |
| SE 261.1a | Psycho-Educational Diagnosis | 2 " |
| PG 236.1a | Practicum in Guidance I | 1 " |
| | | 13 credits |

Semester III

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| PG 205 | Social Psychology of Education | 3 | credits |
| PG 235 | Guidance of Socially Disadvantaged Children | 3 | " |
| PG 263a | Techniques of Child Environmental Appraisal | 2 | " |
| SE 261.2a | Remediation of Learning Disabilities | 2 | " |
| PG 285.1a | Practicum in Counseling I | 2 | " |
| | | 12 | credits |
| | TOTAL | 38 | credits |

## VII CONCLUDING REMARKS

It would be unrealistic to conclude this report without some practical comments on costs and finances. Thus far, Yeshiva University has carried all of the costs of planning, staffing and publicizing PROJECT BEACON and its programs. Because these activities have been conducted by individuals who are already charged with many other responsibilities, PROJECT BEACON work has had to be carved out of vacations, weekends, and late evening efforts. In the future, optimal development of PROJECT BEACON will require the addition of academic personnel whose major responsibility will be to the programs in this area.

At a minimum, two senior staff additions would seem to be called for:

1. Director of BEACON Training Programs: an individual who can work with Department Chairmen and other GSE staff members in planning and supervising new courses, field experiences and internships.

2. Director of BEACON Evaluation and Research: an individual who can make sure that training programs are consistently evaluated against pertinent criteria and that basic research is conducted and its findings fed into the training programs.

Beyond the two directorships reported above it would be most desirable to strengthen BEACON programs by adding the following specialists to the BEACON staff:

3. Department of Curriculum and Instruction: a specialist in reading and other language skills. Since these skills are basic to school achievement, it would seem highly desirable to obtain the services of a research and training specialist in this area.

4. Department of Curriculum and Instruction: a specialist in administration and supervision of urban schools in disadvantaged neighborhoods. Such an individual would need to have sociological sophistication in institutional analysis as well as research and training experience.

5. Department of Educational Psychology and Guidance: a specialist in developmental psychology with particular training and research interests in the socially disadvantaged child.

6. Department of Educational Psychology and Guidance: a specialist in educational measurement and child appraisal with particular training and research interests in the socially disadvantaged child.

The annual budget for the minimal number of staff additions and their supporting secretarial-clerical assistants would be approximately $40,000. The annual budget for the full complement of staff additions and their supporting secretarial-clerical assistants would be approximately $90,000. The Graduate School of Education may be able to make all of these staff additions on the basis of University funds alone over a 5 or 6 year period. If these appointments are to be made more quickly and if PROJECT BEACON is to move into high gear that much earlier, appreciable support from outside granting agencies must be sought for several years.

A similar set of circumstances pertains to fellowships and paid internships for BEACON students. Thus far, the Graduate School of Education has succeeded in providing four fellowships at $2400. per year for BEACON students. In addition, arrangements have already been made with an outside agency to provide 10 paid internships for BEACON trainees each valued at $1800. per annum.

However, if our BEACON training programs are to progress beyond the skeletal stage,many more fellowships and internships are required. Thus, if each training program is to offer 10 awards at an average dollar value of $2100 each, at least 90 awards would be required at an overall dollar value of $190,000 per year.

In this instance it is clear that University funds cannot provide the necessary number of awards in the forseeable future, although some slow increase in the number of University awards to students will doubtlessly occur. Yet, unless the necessary funds are forthcoming, the BEACON programs will neither meet the social need that is already so severe nor will they fulfill the intellectual potential inherent in them as programs of improved training for educational personnel.

Thus it is clear that funds in the neighborhood of $285,000 per year will be needed for several years if PROJECT BEACON is to become an effective operation in the near future. Although the University stands ready to contribute some of the necessary funds,other sources must obviously be tapped for the remainder. Certainly, $285,000 per year is a great deal of money. On the other hand, it is not really an unheard of sum even for such relatively underdeveloped fields as educational experimentation, training, and public service. We hope that the necessary funds can be obtained in one way or another for there are few needs that are as urgent as those that PROJECT BEACON is designed to meet.

# VIII

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